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BIOGRAPHICAL ANECDOTES OF MR. DE LA FAYETTE.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

MR. de la Fayette, formerly the Marquis de la Fayette, has already distinguished himself both in the military and political line, though as yet a very young man, being born on the 1st of September, 1757.—Having made choice of the profession of arms, the American war soon gave him an opportunity of emerging from that state of inactivity to which the peace of 1763 had condemned him, and of displaying those warlike talents which raised his reputation equal to that of the most experienced veterans.

As soon as Mr. de la Fayette learned that the Americans wished for avengers against the Mother Country, by which they thought themselves oppressed, he waited upon the agents of the new republic, and communicated to them the resolution he had formed to assist them in defending their liberty. Dr. Franklin, who had conceived the most flattering hopes of the prudence and courage of this young warrior, accepted his

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offer, and though numerous obstacles opposed the accomplishment of his plan, he surmounted them all; eluded the vigilance of the French ministry; and while the affairs of the colonies were in the greatest disorder—whilst their militia, almost dispersed, were flying before the British generals—and while they were without money, without allies, and without credit, he found his ardour redoubled, and hastened to their relief. The sacrifice of part of his fortune being necessary for the execution of his project, he caused a frigate to be fitted out at his own expense, and set sail with some officers sent out by the agents of Congress.

Having landed at Charlestown in the month of April, 1777, he immediately repaired to Philadelphia, where Congress were sitting. When he presented himself before this new senate, he told them, that he had come to beg two favours. The first was, *That he might be permitted to serve in their army as a common soldier;* and

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the second, *That he might receive no pay.* Congress, struck with the generosity of this offer, gave him a brevet as major-general, and in this quality he joined the American troops.—Washington perceived in his physiognomy and modest confidence, the certain presage of his future success, and offered him the use of his house. Some days after, the army being put in motion, was attacked by General Howe. Washington might have avoided an engagement, the issue of which he readily foresaw, but as Congress had sent orders to him to fight, he considered obedience as his first duty. Mr. de la Fayette, though honored with the title of major-general, would not serve in any other quality than that of a volunteer. His brigade was repulsed; in vain did he attempt, by his exhortations and example, to lead them back to the enemy; he received a dangerous wound in the thigh, and was transported to Philadelphia, which the victorious army forced him to quit, in order to wait for a cure among the mountains.

Mr. de la Fayette's ardent zeal for the cause in which he was embarked, did not, however, permit him to wait till his wound was completely healed. He joined General Green, in New Jersey; and, upon his own solicitation, obtained the command of a body of militia, to reconnoitre the position of the enemy. On his march, he fell in with a detachment of British and Hessian troops, regularly disciplined, and familiarised with the dangers of war. Though the men who attended Mr. de la Fayette were almost undisciplined, their love for their country had rendered them intrepid; and having attacked the enemy, who were superior in number, they fought with so much impetuosity and good order, that they soon put them to flight.

This advantage was so much extolled, that Washington himself sent an account of it to Congress, and requested that Mr. de la Fayette might be entrusted with the command of a

division. As soon as the season permitted the next campaign to be opened, Mr. de la Fayette repaired to Albany, where an army was assembling, to attempt the conquest of Canada. This enterprize he himself first suggested, and had traced out the plan of it. Various obstacles, however, appeared to arise, which he pointed out the means of removing; but when he arrived at Albany, he neither found the number of men, nor the quantity of provisions which had been promised him. The slowness of Congress in this business rendered success impossible; and Mr. de la Fayette was prudent enough to renounce an enterprize, which, however flattering to his courage, would doubtless have been attended with misfortune.

Several slight advantages gained over the Americans, gave them reason to apprehend that fortune would range herself on the side of the British standard; whilst some republican fanatics seemed to fear also, that Washington, after being the deliverer of his country, would become its tyrant. His authority was therefore limited, and his genius fettered; but Mr. de la Fayette, who was a staunch friend to the General, employed all his skill and ability, to quiet the apprehensions of the people. The tranquillity of his mind, his disinterestedness, and his approved valour, all contributed to give him an almost unbounded influence; and he had a great share in restoring the affairs of America, which were then in the greatest disorder.

The frontiers of Canada, and the immense coast of the North, were defended only by a thousand men; and this number was not sufficient to resist the regular troops and militia of the enemy, united with tribes of savages. On the other hand, Washington's army was reduced to four thousand men, the greater part of whom were invalids, and it was necessary to oppose eighteen thousand British troops, well disciplined, and commanded by an experienced General.

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Notwithstanding this inequality, Washington chose so advantageous a position, that the enemy would not venture to attack his camp. Mr. de la Fayette, who had now returned from his northern expedition, and had the command of a separate body, was invested by a British army, far superior in numbers; but by his judicious manœuvres, he was enabled to effect a glorious retreat, without sustaining any loss.

When he rejoined the army, he was detached, at the head of a division, with orders to attack the enemy's rear-guard, which he executed with equal ability and courage. This attack, in which he was supported by the bulk of the army, was obstinate and bloody.

On the 27th of June, Washington gained the battle of Monmouth. On this occasion Mr. de la Fayette commanded successively the van-guard, as second under General Lee, and afterwards the second line of the army. When the fate of the day was determined, he got the command of two thousand men, to join General Sullivan, who, being obliged to evacuate Rhode Island, could not effect a retreat, without exposing himself to a defeat. Mr. de la Fayette, when informed of his critical situation, quitted Boston, and, after a forced march, arrived at Rhode Island, where his presence roused the drooping spirits of the Americans. He put himself at the head of the piquets and soldiers destined to cover the retreat, and by his good conduct, Sullivan was enabled to execute his purpose, without losing a single man. For this service he received the thanks of Congress, which were transmitted to him by their President; an account of it was consigned to the public registers, and he was presented with a sword, ornamented with emblematical figures. At this period, Mr. de la Fayette was only twenty-two years of age.

As soon as France had acknowledged the independence of America, Mr. de la Fayette set sail for that

country, with a view of procuring assistance for the Americans; but though received there with the most flattering marks of applause, he soon quitted it, in order to enter again into the career of glory. The day on which he landed at Boston was distinguished by every testimony of public joy; the inhabitants repaired to the harbour, to meet their generous defender, and he was conducted, amidst the noise of cannon, the ringing of bells, and the sound of musical instruments, to the house which the municipal officers had prepared for him. These testimonies of respect were so much the more affecting, as it was not then known what services he had rendered to the cause of liberty during his residence in France, where he had obtained a supply of men, money, and clothes.

Mr. de la Fayette, however, took the earliest opportunity of quitting these scenes of joy and mirth, in order to join the army, where he was received with the like enthusiasm, and entrusted with the command of the dragoons and light infantry.— This campaign was distinguished by no memorable event, but it was no less glorious to the Americans, whose generals, by their manœuvres and encampments, obliged the enemy to keep themselves closely shut up in New-York.

The British army, however, taking advantage of its superiority, directed all its force against Virginia, as the conquest of that province was a matter of the utmost importance. This expedition was entrusted to Lord Cornwallis, who, by repeated successes, had become a terror to America. Mr. de la Fayette, at the head of five thousand men, was ordered to undertake the defence of Virginia; and though this number was not sufficient to oppose an army far superior in strength, he supplied the deficiency of forces by skill and ability. He pursued Lord Cornwallis step by step, without suffering himself to be exposed to any danger, or without running the hazard of a general engage-

ment. At this critical moment, his soldiers were without money; destitute of clothes and shoes, and in a country where they could scarcely procure provisions to subsist on. The example of their chief, however, taught them to bear up under all their misfortunes and sufferings. They had supported for nearly five months the whole weight of the common cause, when they were joined by the armies under the command of Generals Washington and Rochambeau. Lord Cornwallis then despairing of being able to resist so considerable a force, saw no other resource than that of submitting at discretion to the conqueror. Filled with admiration for the valor and good conduct of Mr. de la Fayette, he requested as a favor, that he might be permitted to treat only with him, and to deliver his sword into his hands. Mr. de la Fayette was, however, so modest, as to refuse this honor, being contented with the glory of having prepared victory for his two colleagues.

After this Mr. de la Fayette repaired to Philadelphia, where he was received in triumph, and the states of Virginia testified the grateful sense which they entertained of his services, by a marble bust, accompanied with honorable inscriptions. In every place where he appeared, he received a tribute of love and affection from the people. He, however, set out soon after for France, in order to encourage government to terminate the work which he had begun, by sending more assistance to the Americans.

As the negotiations which he had entered into on this head were attended with too much delay for one whose zeal was so impatient as that of Mr. de la Fayette, he resolved to return to America, and for that purpose to join Count D'Estaing at Cadiz, who was ready to embark with eight thousand men under his command. News, however, arriving that peace was concluded, and that Britain had acknowledged the independence of America, he was prevented from putting this design in execution.

We must not here omit to mention an anecdote respecting Mr. de la Fayette, which is well known, and which tended not a little to inspire the Americans with a high idea of his courage. Being offended at some insulting expressions against the French nation, which the commissioners had made use of in their manifesto, Mr. de la Fayette sent a challenge to Lord Carlisle, and desired that they might try their skill at single combat. This step, which upon any other occasion might have been considered as the bravado of a young man, and taxed with levity, was not altogether useless. The Americans were not yet well acquainted with the character of the French; they had been accustomed, through the prejudices of education, to look upon them as inferior to the English in courage, and it was proper to shew them that a Frenchman was not afraid of measuring his sword with that of an inhabitant of Britain. Besides this, it in some measure diminished the importance of the commissioners in the minds of the populace, and gave them a high idea of the spirit and resolution of their new allies. Mr. de la Fayette was at this period, and very justly, a great favorite with the Americans. At a time when the European powers had given them no assistance, he had quitted a young and amiable spouse, with all the endearments of domestic happiness, to traverse the inhospitable regions of America, in the pursuit of glory. This action, therefore, greatly increased his popularity. The most circum-spect saw nothing in it but the ardor of a young hero, who wished to distinguish himself, and to avenge an insult offered to his nation. They overlooked the irregularity of such a procedure, and while they allowed that Lord Carlisle, as one of the commissioners, could not accept the challenge, they thought that Mr. de la Fayette had not acted wrong in sending it. This challenge, as may be readily supposed, was not accepted.

As marks of the esteem which the Americans entertained for Mr. de la Fayette,

Fayette, both he and his son, George Washington Fayette, were naturalised, and the states of Virginia and Pennsylvania, in forming two new provinces or counties, gave them the name of de la Fayette;—a name which in America will, no doubt, be immortalised and classed with that of a Washington and a Franklin.

When we reflect upon that zeal for promoting the cause of liberty, which Mr. de la Fayette displayed, when he had hardly attained to manhood, it will not appear surprising, that he should, at a more advanced period, have been a strenuous promoter of the late revolution in France. His conduct in that important affair, which has so much engaged the attention of Europe, and since the commencement of French freedom, has been perfectly consistent with those principles which he manifested in his entrance into public life. So high indeed has his character been held among his countrymen, that he has been honored with the command of the national guards, and so great has been his moderation in this office, that he has upon every occasion shewn himself as much a friend to justice and the laws of his country, as to the rights of his countrymen and of mankind in general. As a proof of this, we may mention his conduct in the affair of Mr. Foulton, which, though not attended with success, evidently shews that he was actuated by the purest motives, and wished the people to proceed with caution, coolness and prudence in their operations.

Mr. Foulton having been conducted to the Hotel de Ville, by the four guards to whose care he had been committed, the mob placed a chair upon a small table, before the assembly, and obliged him to sit down upon it.

Mr. de la Fayette being at this time absent, the people became very tumultuous; upon which Messrs. Bodoïn, Charton, and the other electors commissioned by the assembly to remain with Mr. Foulton, offered themselves as hostages, and promised to

answer, at the hazard of their lives, for the appearance of the criminal. This, however, did not appease the frenzy of the multitude, and they were again proceeding to be riotous, when their redoubled acclamations announced the appearance of Mr. de la Fayette.

As soon as he arrived, a passage was opened for him. He entered, therefore, without difficulty, and having taken his seat near Mr. Moreau de Saint-Mery, the president of the assembly, a profound silence instantly ensued. Mr. de la Fayette then spoke for half an hour in the most powerful strains of eloquence, and addressed the people in the following words: "I am known to you all; you have been pleased to appoint me to be your General, and this choice, highly honorable to me, makes it my duty to speak to you with that candor and freedom which form the basis of my character. You wish to put to death, without trial, this man who is now before you. That is an act of injustice, which would disgrace you;—which would disgrace me, and all the efforts I have made in favor of liberty, were I weak enough to permit it.—I will, therefore, not suffer this injustice.—But I am far from pretending to save him if he be guilty.—I desire only that the decree of the assembly may be executed, and that this man may be conducted to prison, in order that he may be judged by that tribunal which the nation shall appoint. I wish the law to be respected, without which, there can be no liberty—without which, I should not have contributed towards the liberty of the new world—and without which, I could not contribute to that which is about to take place here.—What I say in favour of the forms of the law, ought not to be interpreted in favor of Mr. Foulton. I ought not to be suspected of partiality for Mr. Foulton; and perhaps, the manner in which I have upon many occasions expressed myself respecting him,

"him, may be sufficient to deprive me of the right of judging him. The more guilty he is supposed to be, the more necessary it is that he should be proceeded against according to the forms of law, either to render his punishment more striking, or to procure information respecting his accomplices. I will, therefore, give orders for his being conveyed to the prison of the Abbey of St. Germain."

This speech made a great impression, and especially upon those who, in the vast hall, where the assembly sat, were near enough to hear it distinctly.

Those who were close to Mr. de la Fayette were of opinion that the criminal should be instantly conducted to prison; and two even of those who guarded him got upon a bench, and cried out, that this ought to be done: but the minds of those at the bottom of the hall were not so well disposed. Some of them cried out, with great violence, '*Down, down!*' So that the two men were obliged to descend, and be silent.

Mr. Foullon himself then attempted to speak, and a short silence ensued, but these few words only were heard, "Respectable assembly, most just and generous people, I am amidst my fellow-citizens, I fear nothing."

These words produced, perhaps, a quite different effect from what was expected. The people returned to their former violence; they became very clamorous without doors, and some even decently dressed, who had mixed among the crowd in the hall, endeavoured to excite them to severity. One of them, addressing himself to the assembly, cried out, in a passion, "What need is there to try a man who has been under condemnation for these thirty years past?"

Three different times Mr. de la Fayette resumed his speech; as often did his words produce a favourable effect, and it was expected that justice would have been suffered to take its regular course, when the clamour of

those without the Hotel de Ville became much more outrageous. Several voices from the bottom of the hall called out, that the prisoner would be released; every avenue to the hall resounded with horrible cries; fresh crowds pressed upon those who were already in the Hotel; and the whole multitude seemed to be in violent agitation, and to advance with impetuosity towards the chair upon which Mr. Foullon was sitting.

Mr. de la Fayette now cried out, with a loud voice, "Let the criminal be conducted to prison." This order, however, was not attended to; Mr. Foullon was already in the hands of the populace, who conveyed him across the hall, without exposing him to any bad treatment, and a few moments after news was brought that the mob had hung him on a lamp-iron, opposite to the Hotel de Ville.

Mr. de la Fayette's conduct on a late occasion, does him no less honor. Louis XVI. being desirous of going to St. Cloud, to pass the last Easter holidays, had got into his carriage for that purpose, together with the queen, the dauphin, madame, and Madame Elizabeth, when he was stopped by the populace, who insisted that he should not quit Paris. Surmises, it seems, had been propagated that this journey was the prelude to a counter-revolution, and as his majesty had been so imprudent as to receive the sacrament from the hands of some refractory priests, the people began to be alarmed, and to entertain suspicions of the sincerity of their sovereign. Mr. de la Fayette, and the mayor of Paris, wished to open a passage for their majesties, and for this purpose ordered the national guard to remove the crowd. Their orders, however, were disobeyed; and though the commander in chief reproached the soldiers for their conduct, they remained obstinate, and persisted in their design. Finding all his efforts of no avail, Mr. de la Fayette suffered them to take their own course; but being fired with a just indignation at this insult, offered

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both to him and the nation, he in a few days resigned his command in due form. This step, which displayed a spirit every way worthy of a soldier and a patriot, spread a general alarm; and the guards, unwilling to lose a commander to whom they had hitherto looked up as to a father, eagerly pressed him to retract his resolution. This he at length agreed to, but not until he had insisted that such of the soldiers as had shewn themselves most culpable should be cashiered. A company of grenadiers was accordingly disarmed and dismissed, after which peace and tranquillity were soon re-established.

We shall conclude this short sketch with the character of Mr. de la Fayette, as delineated in a few words by Mr. Ceruti. "Mr. de la Fayette

"exposed his life, and employed his sword in America. Washington and Franklin seem to have blended their spirit with his. In the most embarrassing circumstances, he never committed a fault, nor did he ever lose any favourable opportunity that occurred. He possesses that calm intrepidity which, instead of being disconcerted by tumult, is capable of pacifying it. As long as he shews himself to the people, in vain will all attempts be to stir up the people against him."

A certain French writer has applied to Mr. de la Fayette the following lines of Tacitus. *Sublime et erectum ingenium pulchritudinem ac speciem excelsæ magnæque gloriæ vehementius, quam causæ appetebat: mox mitigavit ratio et ætas: Retinuitque, quod est difficillimum, ex sapientiâ modum.*

REFLECTIONS ON THE FORMATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF RICHES.

BY THE LATE MR. TURGOT, SOMETIME INTENDANT OF THE FINANCES OF FRANCE.

(Continued from page 278.)

§ 34. *EVERY* merchandize may serve as a scale or common measure, by which to compare the value of any other.

It follows from hence, that in a country where the commerce is very brisk, where there are many productions and much consumption, where there are great supplies and a great demand for all sorts of commodities, every sort will have a current price, having relation to every other species, that is to say, that a certain quantity of one will be of equal value to a certain quantity of all others. Thus the same quantity of corn which is worth eighteen pints of wine, is also the value of a sheep, a piece of leather, or a certain quantity of iron; and all these things have in the transactions of trade an equal value. To express or make known the value of any particular thing, it is evident that it is sufficient to announce the quan-

tity of any other known production, which will be looked on as an equivalent for it. Thus, to make known what a piece of leather of a certain size is worth, we may say indifferently, that it is worth three bushels of corn, or eighteen pints of wine. We may by the same method express the value of a certain quantity of wine, by the number of sheep, or bushels of corn it will bring in trade.

We see by this, that every species of commodity that can be an object of commerce, may be measured, as I may say, by each other, that every one may serve as a common measure, or scale of comparison to describe the value of every other species, and in like manner every merchandize becomes in the hands of him who possesses it, a means to procure all others—a sort of universal pledge.

§ 35. *Every species of merchandize does not present a scale equally commodi-*
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ous. It is proper to prefer in use, such as not being susceptible of any great alteration in quality, and have a value principally relative to the number and quantity.

But although all merchandize has essentially this property of representing any other, is able to serve as a common measure, to express their value, and a universal pledge to procure all of them by way of exchange, yet all cannot be employed with the same degree of facility to these two uses. The more susceptible any merchandize is to change its value by an alteration in its quality, the more difficult it is to make it a scale of reference for the value of others. For example, if eighteen pints of wine of Anjou are equivalent in value to a sheep, eighteen pints of Cape wine may be equivalent to eighteen sheep. Thus he who to express the value of a sheep, would say it is worth eighteen pints of wine, would employ an equivocal language, and would not communicate any precise idea, at least until he added some explanation, which would be very inconvenient. We are, therefore, obliged to choose for a scale of comparison, such commodities as being more commonly in use, and consequently of a value more generally known, are more like each other, and of which consequently the value has more relation to the quantity than the quality.

§ 36. *For want of an exact correspondence between the value and the number or quality, it is supplied by a medium valuation, which becomes a species of real money.*

In a country where there are only one race of sheep, we may easily take the value of a fleece or of a sheep by the common method of valuation, and we may say that a barrel of wine, or a piece of stuff, is worth a certain number of fleeces or of sheep. There is in reality some inequality in sheep, but when we want to sell them, we take care to estimate that inequality, and to reckon (for example) two

lambs for one sheep. When it is necessary to treat of the relative value of other merchandize, we fix the common value of a sheep of middling age and quality, as the symbol of unity. In this view the enunciation of the value of sheep, becomes an agreed language, and this word *one sheep*, in the language of commerce, signifies only a certain value, which, in the mind of him who understands it, carries the idea not only of a sheep, but as a certain quantity of every other commodity, which are esteemed equivalent thereto, and this expression is more applicable to a fictitious and abstract value, than to the value of a real sheep; that if by chance a mortality happens among the sheep, and that to purchase one of them you must give double the quantity of corn or wine that was formerly given, we shall rather say, that one sheep is worth two sheep, than change the expression we have been accustomed to for all other valuations.

§ 37. *Examples of medium valuations which become an ideal expression for value.*

There exists, in the commerce of every nation, many examples of fictitious valuations of merchandize, which are, as we may say, only a conventional language to express their value. Thus the cooks of Paris, and the fishmongers who furnish great houses, generally sell by the piece. A fat pullet is esteemed *one piece*, a chicken half a piece, more or less, according to the season; and so of the rest. In the negro trade in the American colonies, they sell a cargo of negroes at the rate of so much per negro, an *Indian piece*. The women and children are valued, so that, for example, three children, or one woman and two children are reckoned as one head of negro. They increase or diminish the value on account of the strength or other quality of the slaves, so that certain slaves are reckoned as two heads of negroes.

(To be continued.)

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Literary Magazine & British Review.



DESCRIPTION OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

WITH A BEAUTIFUL VIEW.

THE Cape of Good Hope, which is the southern extremity of Africa, lies in $81^{\circ} 23'$ E. longitude, and $34^{\circ} 29'$ S. latitude. The Dutch trading, when their trade to the East-Indies began to increase, that an establishment here would be of great utility to their shipping, applied to the chiefs of the Hottentots; who agreed for a certain quantity of spirit and tobacco, to give up this point of land, and to retire farther into the country. This grant was obtained about the year 1653, and since that period, the Dutch, like all other European settlers, have been making continual encroachments on the possessions of the natives, so that their territories here are become now pretty extensive.

"The town itself," says Dr. Sparrman, "is the only one in the whole colony, and is properly called the Cape, though this name is often injudiciously given: to the whole settlement. The above-mentioned town is situated between the shore and the north side of that mountain, which, in consideration of its apparent equality of surface, has obtained the name of the Table. According to the measurement of the Abbé de la Cailles, the shore of this bay is 550 toises above the level of the sea, and 1344 toises in length, when taken from East to West; the middlemost part of it being situated South-east of the town, and 2000 toises from it.

"Duyvel's-Kop, (the Devil's-Head,) called by the English Charles Mountain, is in a great measure connected with the Table Mountain, but is full thirty-one toises lower, and at the same time is peaked and bare. Leeuwen-Kop, called by the English the Lion's-Head, and likewise the Sugar-Loaf, is a hill more separated, but less elevated, than the former: the same may be said of its neighbour, the Leeuwen-Staart, called by the

English the Lion's Rump, and likewise the Lion's-Tail.

"From one of these signals are given, by the firing of guns for every vessel that comes that way, and appears bound for the harbour. When they approach still nearer, a flag is hoisted on this mountain, which serves for a signal to the captains of the Dutch ships; but nobody but they and the governor of the Cape know how the colour of the flag is to be varied for each respective month. The intention of this regulation is, that a Dutchman who is coming into the harbour, may immediately know if the harbour is fallen into the hands of the enemy, and accordingly take care not to run into it.

"The above-mentioned hills are in a great measure bare, and that part of Table Mountain that looks towards the town is pretty steep. The bushes and trees (if they may be so called) which here and there grow wild, are stunted partly by their own nature, and partly by the South-east and North-west winds. Hence they, most of them, look dried up, with pale blighted leaves, and, upon the whole, have a miserable appearance. Some of them, sheltered by the cliffs, and at the same time watered by the rills that run down the sides of the mountain, may perhaps be somewhat more healthy and vigorous; but they are universally deficient in that lively verdure which adorns the oaks, vines, myrtles, laurels, lemon-trees, &c. planted at the bottom near the town. Still farther on, the dry heathy lands and sandy plains on the strand, contribute to give the country an arid and barren look. It must be owned, indeed, that a considerable quantity of the most beautiful African flowers are scattered up and down in different parts during the fine season; but they cannot shew their splendid colours to any great advantage among

the various kinds of grass here, which are mostly perennial and of a palid hue, among the dry bushes, and in the fields, which, at least near the Cape, are almost continually grazed off. These plains, therefore, cannot captivate the eye nearly so much as the European Flora, with her green meadows replete with annual grass. I am ready to allow, indeed, that the verdant plantations, together with a few acres of arable land round about the town, make a beautiful appearance, opposed to the African wilds and deserts, with which they are surrounded, and which serve to set them off to a greater advantage; but then clipped and trimmed trees, with regular plantations of groves reared up by art, cannot so long keep their ground in our taste, as that lively verdure of nature which a European, at least after having resided for some time at the Cape, I think cannot help missing.

"The town is small, about 2000 paces in length and breadth, including the gardens and orchards, by which one side of it is terminated. The streets are broad, but not paved; a great many of them are planted with oaks. The houses are handsome, two stories high at the most; the greatest part of them are stuccoed and white-washed on the outside, but some of them are painted green: this latter colour, which is never seen upon our houses in Sweden, being the favourite colour with the Dutch for their clothes, boats, and ships.

"A great part of their houses as well as churches are covered with a sort of dark-coloured reed (*Rostia setorum*) which grows in dry and sandy places. It is somewhat more firm than straw, but rather finer and more brittle.

"How this thatching is performed, certainly deserves the consideration of our country gentlemen and men of landed property; and a description of it will be given by Captain Ekeberg on some other occasion. The rest of the houses in the Cape are covered with what is called Ita-

lian tiling, which resembles the flat tiles we use for floors.

"The company's gardens, so differently spoken of by Kolbe, Byron, and Bougainville, are the largest in the town, being 400 paces broad and 1000 long, and consisting of various quarters planted with cals, and other kinds of garden stuff, for the governor's own table, as well as for the use of the Dutch ships and of the hospital. Fruit-trees are planted in some of the quarters, which, in order to shelter them from the violence of the South-east wind, are surrounded with hedges of myrtle and elm. Besides this, the greater walks are ornamented with oaks thirty feet high, which by their shade produce an agreeable coolness, and are much resorted to by the strangers that visit the port, and chuse to walk in the heat of the day.

"The four quarters that lie nearest to the governor's residence, which is situated in the pleasure-garden towards the north, have indeed some beds of flowers in them; but this pleasure-garden is very far from deserving the commendations bestowed upon it by Kolbe, who cries it up as having no equal, and being stored with the most costly plants from all parts of the world. At the end of the pleasure-garden and to the east of it, is the menagerie, palisaded and railed off, in which are shewn ostriches, casuaries, zebras, and sometimes different sorts of antilopes, and other smaller quadrupeds, almost all of them natives of the country. In another partition are kept various foreign and domestic fowls.

"The fortifications lie some hundred paces north of the town, being separated from it by a verdant mead, which is cut through with canals and roads. On both sides the town, towards the strand, batteries are placed; and to the south, where the land is higher, are seen the burial grounds of the Chinese and free Malays that live at the Cape; as well as one belonging to the Dutch, which has a wall round it. But what disgraces the town is a gallows,

gallows, with racks and other horrid instruments of torture, which the governor has lately ordered to be erected in the place of honour, if I may so call it, or opposite to the fortification in the above-mentioned meadow. Besides this, the well-known hardness of heart of the Dutch settled in the Indies, has shewn itself here by two other gibbets erected within sight of the town, viz. one on each side of it."

In order that our readers may form a better idea of this place, which is so often mentioned, we shall subjoin Mr. Le Vaillant's account of it, as follows.

"Cape Town is situated on the declivity of the Table and Lion Hills. It forms an amphitheatre, which extends as far as the borders of the sea. The streets, though broad, are not commodious, because they are ill paved. The houses, which are almost all built in an uniform manner, are beautiful and spacious; but they are covered with reeds, to guard against those accidents which might be occasioned by heavy roofs during the time of hurricanes. The interior part of these houses displays no marks of frivolous luxury; all the furniture is in a noble and simple taste; no tapestries are ever seen in them; a few paintings and mirrors form their principal ornaments. The entrance to the city by the square of the fort presents a noble view, especially as the greater part of the fine edifices have been erected there. On one side appears the Company's garden, in its full extent; on the other the fountains, the streams of which flow down from the Table Hill through a fissure, which is perceived from the city and from the whole harbour. This water is excellent, and furnishes abundance for the consumption of the inhabitants, as well as for supplying such vessels as touch here.

"The men appeared to me to be in general well made, and the women to be pretty. I was surprized to see the latter dress with as much attention to the minutiae of elegance as the

ladies in France; but they have neither their manners nor graces. As the children are always suckled by female slaves, the familiarity which reigns between them has a great influence upon their manners and education. That of the men is still more neglected; if we except the children of the great, who are sent to Europe to be instructed. At the Cape, there are no other teachers of youth but writing-masters.

"Almost all the ladies play on the harpsichord; this is their sole accomplishment. They love singing, and are remarkably fond of dancing; on this account it is rare not to see several balls every week. The officers of the ships which touch here, and which lie some time in the roads, often afford them an opportunity of indulging in this pleasure. Upon my arrival, the governor used to give a public ball every month, and the principal people of the town followed his example.

"I was astonished to find neither a coffee-house nor a tavern, in a place at which so many strangers arrive; but one may procure lodgings in every private house. The usual charge for bed and board is a dollar a day; which is dear enough, when we consider the cheapness of the productions of the country. During my residence here butchers meat was exceedingly cheap. I have seen thirteen pounds of mutton sold for about sixpence sterling, an ox for twelve or fifteen rixdollars, ten quarters of corn for fourteen or fifteen, and so in proportion for other things. During the war the price of every commodity was raised to an exorbitant degree; and in the latter part of it forty-five rixdollars were given for a wretched bag of potatoes, and above two shillings sterling for a small cabbage. The charge for board, however, was not increased.

"Fish are very abundant at the Cape. Among those most esteemed, the principal are the *rooman*, a red fish found in the bay of Falso; and the *klepvis*, which has no scales, and which is

aught on the rocks bordering the sea; the *steenbraaszen*, the *stompneus*, and some others. These excellent fish make a conspicuous figure at every good table. Oysters are very rare here, and none are found any where but in the bay of Falso. Eels however are still more uncommon. Crayfish I never saw; but the people eat sea eels, which are called *klepkou-sen*.

"To find game, one must go a great many leagues from the Cape. The most common kinds are the *steenbock*, the *duiker*, the *reebok*, the *grysbok*, the *bontebok*, and all the different species of antelopes, concerning which I shall speak more at length in my description of quadrupedes. Hares, above all that small species called the *down hare*, are found here in great abundance, but they have not the flavour of ours.

"Partridges also of different kinds, smaller or larger, and more or less delicious than those of Europe, are found here; but the quail and the snipe do not differ from ours. They are never seen here but in their passage.

"Whatever the enthusiasts of the Cape may say, I am of opinion that our fruits transplanted thither have greatly degenerated. The grapes alone appeared to me to be delicious; cherries are scarce and bad; pears and apples are not much better, and soon spoil. The citrons, however, and the oranges, especially that kind called *naveteyer*, are excellent: the figs are delicate and wholesome; but the small banana, or *pisang*, has a bad taste. Is it not as if wishing that in so fine a country, and under so pure a sky, if we except a few dismal bays, no indigenous fruits are to be found? Asparagus and artichokes do not grow at the Cape, but all the other productions of our kitchen gardens in Europe seem to be naturalized: one might enjoy them the whole year, did not the south-east wind, which prevails for three months, dry the earth to such a degree as to render it incapable of every kind of cultivation; it blows with such fury,

that it is necessary, in order to preserve plants, to surround all the beds of a garden with close palisades made of young elms. The same method is pursued with respect to young trees; which, notwithstanding these precautions, never shoot forth branches on the windward side; and always incline to the other, which gives them a dismal appearance: in general, it is very difficult to rear them.

"I have often been a witness to the ravages occasioned by this wind. In the space of twenty-four hours the best stocked gardens appear as if dug up and swept. This wind continues from January to April at this extremity of Africa, and extends even a great way into the country. In the course of my travels, it has sometimes overturned all my carriages; and no other alternative has been left me but to tie them to large bushes, to prevent them from being thrown topsy turvy.

"At the Cape, this wind is announced by a small white cloud, which at first attaches itself to the summit of the Table Hill, on the side next to the Devil's Hill. The air then begins to become cooler; by and by the cloud increases, and expands till it grows so large that it covers the whole top of the mountain: it is then commonly said that the mountain has put on its peruke. The cloud, however, advances with a rapid motion, and hovers over the city: one would then say that it was about to be inundated and buried by a deluge; but, in proportion as it approaches the bottom of the mountain, it evaporates, and appears to be reduced to nothing. The heavens continue calm and serene, without any interruption; and the mountain alone, for a short moment, has a gloomy aspect, while it is deprived by that veil of the cheering presence of the sun.

"I have spent whole mornings in examining this phenomenon, without being able to comprehend the cause of it; but afterwards, when I frequented the Bay of Falso, on the opposite side of the mountain, I have often

often enjoyed the pleasure of seeing its commencement and progress. The wind at first announces itself very feebly, carrying slowly along with it a kind of fog, which it seems to detach from the surface of the sea. This being accumulated, becomes condensed by the Table Hill towards the south, an obstacle which opposes it in its way; and in order to overcome it, gradually rolling over itself, it rises by its efforts to the summit, and displays to the town that white cloud which announces the wind, which has already blown for several hours, in the harbour and its environs, towards the face of the Table Hill.

"The ordinary duration of this kind of storm is three days: sometimes it continues, without remission, for a much longer space of time; often, also, it ceases suddenly; and during the three months when it prevails, if it happen to cease several times in this manner, it is a sure sign that great sickness will follow.

"Though this wind is not absolutely dangerous for ships, there have been more than one instance of its incommoding a great many. When it is too impetuous, from prudence, and to avoid even the fear of an accident, they make for the open sea; but, when it collects no fog, it is perceived in the town, and blows only in the road. It is therefore the accumulation of the fog, which, moving forward with great velocity, occasions these dreadful hurricanes. Very often it is impossible to cross the streets; and, notwithstanding the care and attention with which doors and windows are shut, the dust penetrates even into trunks and chests of drawers. But, however inconvenient this wind may be, it still procures great advantages to the town; it frees it from mephitic vapours, occasioned by the filth which is naturally collected on the borders of the sea, by that which the inhabitants throw into it, and still more by the bloody remains which the Company's butchers (who use neither the heads, feet, nor in-

testines of the animals they kill) throw away, and leave at the doors of their shops; where, being collected into heaps, they become corrupted, infect the air and the inhabitants, and add strength to those epidemical diseases, too common at the Cape in the season when the south-east wind has not prevailed. The most dangerous and dreadful disorder here is the sore throat. People of the strongest constitutions often fall a sacrifice to it in three or four days: it is so violent, that they have scarcely time to counteract its effects by the assistance of medicine.

"The small pox is another scourge in all the colonies here. Before the arrival of the Europeans, this distemper was not known; and since the Dutch have possessed the Cape, it has been within a hair's breadth of destruction. The first time of its appearance, more than two-thirds of the inhabitants perished. Its ravages, however, were still more destructive among the Hottentots; it appeared that this malady attacked them sooner than others: at present they are very much subject to it.

"As this distemper was brought to the Cape by some vessels from Europe, the Company's surgeons are always sent to examine with the utmost care such ships as arrive in the roads. On the least appearance of infection, the crew are rigorously interdicted from having any communication with the town or its inhabitants; and an embargo is laid on the goods, no part of which, however small, is suffered to be brought on shore. Were it discovered that a captain had found means to conceal this disorder on board of his ship, he and his officers would be immediately degraded, and condemned to pay a very heavy fine, if the vessel belonged to the Company. I include the officers; because, as each of them is obliged to answer for that part of the vessel which concerns him, it would not be possible to conceal the infection without the knowledge and unanimous consent of the

the crew. Did the ship belong to a foreign power, nothing could save it from confiscation.

"The wet season begins generally towards the end of April: and the rains are more abundant and more frequent in the town than any where else in the neighbourhood; which may be accounted for in the following manner:—At the Cape the north wind produces the same effect as the south-west does in France: it carries along with it the clouds, which, passing over the town, are stopped by their impulse against the Table, Devil, and Lyon Hills. Continual rains prevail then at the Cape; whilst the neighbouring parts, to the distance of two miles around, enjoy dry weather, and a sky perfectly serene. Sometimes they fall over the whole space contained between Table Bay and the Bay of Falso, to the east of that chain of enormous mountains which extends to the very extremity of Africa; whilst the eastern coast is clear and entirely free from clouds. This is but a faint picture of what happens on the Coromandel and Malabar coasts;

except that this phenomenon is more wonderful here, because it is nearer, and much better perceived. Indeed, if two friends set out for the Bay of Falso, he who pursues his route on the eastern side of the mountain, carries his umbrella with him, to defend himself from the rain; but he who passes on the west side, takes it that he may shelter himself from the beams of the sun.

"Strangers are generally well received at the Cape by those who are in the Company's service, and by some others who are private people; but the English are adored, either on account of the similarity between the manners of the two nations, or of their very much affecting to be generous. It is an undoubted fact, that, whenever they arrive, every one is eager to offer them lodging. In less than eight days every thing becomes English in the house upon which they have fixed their choice; and the master, the mistress, and even the children, soon assume their manners. At table, for example, the knife never fails to do the office of he fork."

In addition to the Life of Sir HANS SLOANE, we insert the following Catalogue of his Cabinet of Curiosities, sent us by a correspondent, signed BENJ. HYNAM.

THE LIBRARY OF SIR HANS SLOANE, INCLUDING BOOKS OF DRAWINGS.

M ANUSCRIPTS, and prints, in volumes	50,000	Testacea	-	5,843
Medals, and coins, ancient and modern	23,000	Echini, echinites	-	659
Intaglios	700	Asteriæ, trochites, entrochi	-	241
Seals	268	Crustacea, crabs, lobsters	-	363
Vessels of agate, jasper, &c.	542	Stellæ marinæ, or star fishes	-	173
Antiquities	1,125	Fishes and their parts	-	1,555
Precious stones, agates, jasper	2,256	Birds and their parts, nests of different species	-	1,173
Metals, minerals, and ores	2,725	Quadrupedes	-	1,886
Crystals, spars	1,864	Vipers, serpents	-	521
Earths, sands, salts	1,035	Insects	-	5,439
Fossils, flints, stones	1,275	Vegetables	-	12,500
Birumen, sulphur, amber	399	Volumes of dried plants	-	334
Tales, mica, &c.	368	Calculi, anatomical preparations	-	750
Corals, sponges	1,421	Miscellaneous articles	-	2,798
		Mathematical instruments	-	55

As a Bill is now in Parliament for regulating the Province of Quebec, we shall present our Readers with an authentic Paper, being

ASTATE OF THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

DRAWN UP BY MR. OGDEN, OF THAT PROVINCE, FOR THE INFORMATION OF THE DUKE OF CLARENCE.

THE constitution of the province is founded on the statute of the 14th of George III. called the Quebec bill. By that bill the legislative power is vested in the governor and legislative council. The council is composed of the lieutenant-governor, chief justice, and secretary, for the time being, and twenty other members. They are appointed by the crown, and receive each a salary of one hundred pounds a year. They consist of near one half French members. Their power extends to almost all the necessary purposes of government, except the levying of taxes, which the said statute inhibits. The salaries of the counsellors, and all the expences of the civil list of the province, amounting to twenty-five thousand pounds per annum, exclusive of the governor-general's salary, are paid by Great Britain. This constitution has been frequently complained of by the inhabitants, and several petitions have been presented to his Majesty and parliament for the repeal of the Quebec bill, and for a liberal constitution, similar to those of the other colonies.

Number of Inhabitants.

The inhabitants were numbered, by order of General Haldimand, in 1783, when they amounted to about one hundred and thirteen thousand English and French, exclusive of the loyalists, who have lately settled in the upper parts of the province, to the number of ten thousand. These are daily increasing, and vast numbers of loyalists from the different American states, to the number of fifteen thousand, have petitioned for lands, and liberty to remove into the province,

to settle and become British subjects. If these are admitted, large numbers of other loyalists from the States will follow them, and it will be in the power of government to settle the greatest part of the vacant lands in the lower parts of the province in a very short space of time.

Laws.

The laws declared to be in force by the Quebec bill, for the determination of civil rights, are those which were in force under the French government, before the conquest. The laws have been found to be oppressive, and incompetent to protect and govern the commercial rights: and under them civil rights are unknown, and property is insecure.

Circulating Property.

The circulating property belonging to British merchants in Canada, is estimated at 1,017,333l. 6s. 8d. Halifax currency, which is at least 19-20ths of all the circulating property in the province. There are about fifteen thousand British subjects in the province of Quebec.

Tenure of real Property.

The real property in the province is held under the feudal tenures, which existed when the province was under the government of France. By these tenures the inhabitants are held in a state of vassalage, which, as in all other countries where lands are held under similar tenures, has impeded agriculture and improvements, and has had a tendency, added to the religion of the country, to keep the people in a state of dependence and wretched ignorance.

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Agriculture and Soil.

The agriculture is the same that it was at the time of the conquest. It is confined chiefly to the raising of wheat, which sells for little more than half a dollar the bushel. The exports of it will increase from the immense quantities which will be raised by the loyalists up the river, and that which must come down the lake Champlain. This branch of agriculture is so far useful to the nation, that it employs a number of shipping to transport it, but the lands of the province might be much more usefully employed in the culture of hemp. Perhaps no country in the world is so well calculated for raising it. The lands are rich and fertile, and will need little or no manure for many years. The country abounds with marl, which is now used on some of the uplands with success, but the interval lands are abundantly rich without it. This province is on every account better calculated for the culture of hemp than Russia, and there can be no doubt that Great Britain might be fully supplied with that article from this province, and at a much lower rate than is now paid for it in Russia. But this can never be accomplished until persons acquainted with the culture of hemp are introduced into the province. The first step to effect this desirable purpose, will be granting the land under the tenure of free and common soccage, which will encourage men acquainted with all the branches of agriculture to remove into the province.

Science.

Science in the province, among the Canadians, is at its lowest ebb. Excepting the clergy, and a few Canadian gentlemen, there are no persons who have any pretensions to it. Out of the towns of Quebec and Montreal, there is not, upon an

average, three men in a parish who can read and write. This extreme ignorance is to be attributed to many causes. It has always been the policy of the clergy to confine knowledge and information within the walls of the church: hence they preserve their dominion over the peasantry. The only schools in the province are in the cities of Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers, and in the hands of the church: of consequence the clergy have the power of dispensing knowledge to whom they please. It might have been good policy, under the French government, to keep the inhabitants in this wretched state of ignorance: but it is a question, whether it is good policy, under the present government. The Canadians are to be considered as attached to their former government. Facts during the late war clearly support this assertion. Nothing will have a greater tendency to Anglify them than illuminating their understandings; when they will discern the advantages resulting from the mildness of a British government. To effect this, public free schools ought to be established in different parts of the province, to teach the inhabitants the English language. The laws of England ought to be introduced: and to make it the interest of the inhabitants to learn the English language, all the proceedings of the courts of law ought to be in English, and every measure should be taken to root out the predilection which they still retain for their former king and government. Great Britain can have but two objects for retaining the province; the one is the commerce, and the other is founded in policy, from the situation of the province; for, whenever it is well settled by inhabitants firmly attached to his Majesty, Great Britain may always hold a rod over the heads of the American states, and keep them in awe.

TRANSLATION OF A LETTER OF DR. COTUGNO TO THE
CHEVALIER VIVENZIO, FROM NAPLES.

SIR,

THE particulars relative to the observation which I mentioned to you a few days ago, when we were talking of electrical animals, and when I said that the mouse was, in my opinion, one of that sort, are the following:

Towards the latter end of March, whilst I was sitting with a table before me, something which seemed to move near my foot, called my attention; and on turning my eyes towards the floor, I observed a small mouse, which, from his delicate coat, seemed to have been lately born. As the animal could not run very fast, I easily overtook him, and taking him up by the skin of the back, with the thumb and first finger held him upon my hand with the abdomen upwards. In this situation the tail of the animal got between the third and fourth finger of the same hand. I then took up a small dissecting knife, in order to cut him open, and accordingly began the incision towards the middle of the abdomen; but the knife had hardly cut part of the skin, when the mouse moved his tail, and vibrating it very violently against the third finger, occasioned, to my astonishment, a great shock all up the arm, accom-

panied with a kind of internal tremor. It likewise produced a painful sensation on the shoulder, and an agitation of the head, which frightened me so, that I instantly dropped the mouse. This kind of torpor in the arm continued for a quarter of an hour and upwards; and even the remembrance of it was accompanied with a kind of aversion. I did not know that this animal had any electrical property, but the above-mentioned observation gave me an undoubted proof of it.

I have the honour to be, &c. &c.

To this account we can only add a wish, that other ingenious persons may repeat, with more attention, an experiment so easily tried, in order to establish a fact so singular, and which might open the way to farther discoveries relating to animal æconomy.

Dr. Cotugno is a person well known in the learned world for his great knowledge in anatomy; in which branch he has made some very good discoveries. He has been for many years Professor of Anatomy in the University of Naples. The chevalier Vivenzio is likewise a physician in the same city.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE SUGAR-ANTS; IN A LETTER FROM
JOHN CASTLES, Esq. TO LIEUT. GEN. MELVILLE, F. R. S.

FROM THE PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS.

THE sugar-ants, so called from their ruinous effects on the sugar-cane, first made their appearance in Grenada, about twenty years ago, on a sugar plantation, at Pettit Havre, a bay five or six miles from the town of St. George, the capital, conveniently situated for trade from Martinique, it was therefore concluded, they were brought from thence in some vessel employed in that trade; which is very probable, as colonies of

them, in like manner, were afterwards propagated in different parts of the island, by droghers, or vessels employed in carrying stores, &c. from one part of the island to another. From thence they continued to extend themselves on all sides, for several years, destroying in succession, every sugar plantation between St. George's and St. John's, a space of about twelve miles. At the same time, colonies of them began to be observed

observed in different parts of the island, particularly at Duquesne, on the north, and Calavini on the south side of it. All attempts of the planters to put a stop to the ravages of these insects having been found ineffectual, it well became the legislature to offer great public rewards to any who should discover a practicable method of destroying them, so as to permit the cultivation of the sugar-cane as formerly. Accordingly, an act was passed, by which such discoverer was entitled to twenty thousand pounds, to be paid from the public treasury of the island. Many were the candidates on this occasion, but very far were any of them from having any just claim; nevertheless considerable sums of money were granted, in consideration of trouble and expences in making experiments.

In Grenada there had always been several species of ants, differing in size, colour, &c. which, however, were perfectly innocent with respect to the sugar-cane. The ants in question, on the contrary, were not only highly injurious to it, but to several sorts of trees, such as the lime, lemon, orange, &c.

These ants are of the middle size, of a slender make, of a dark red colour, and remarkable for the quickness of their motions; but their greatest peculiarities were, their taste, when applied to the tongue; the immensity of their number; and their choice of places for their nests.

All the other species of ants in Grenada, have a bitter, musky taste; these, on the contrary, are acid in the highest degree, and, when a number of them were rubbed together between the palms of the hands, they emitted a strong vitriolic sulphurous smell; so much, that, when this experiment was made, a gentleman conceived, that it might be owing to this quality that these insects were so unfriendly to vegetation; this criterion to distinguish them was infallible, and known to every one. Their numbers were incredible, I have seen the roads coloured by them for miles together; and so crowded were they in many

places, that the print of the horse feet would appear for a moment or two, till filled up by the surrounding multitude. This is no exaggeration. All the other species of ants, though numerous, were circumscribed, and confined to a small spot, in proportion to the space occupied by the cane-ants.

The common black ants of that country, had their nests about the foundation of houses, or old walls; others in hollow trees; and a large species in the pastures, descending by a small aperture under ground. The sugar-ants, I believe, universally constructed their nests among the roots of particular plants and trees, such as the sugar-cane, lime, lemon, and orange trees, &c.

The destruction of these ants was attempted chiefly two ways: by poison, and the application of fire.

For the first purpose, arsenic and corrosive sublimate, mixed with animal substances, such as salt-fish, herrings, crabs, and other shell-fish, &c. were used, which was greedily devoured by them; myriads of them were thus destroyed; and the more so, as it was observed by a magnifying glass, and indeed (though not so distinctly) by the naked eye, that corrosive sublimate had the effect of rendering them so outrageous, that they destroyed each other; and that effect was produced even by coming into contact with it. But it is clear, that these poisons could not be laid in sufficient quantities over so large a tract of land, as to give the hundred thousandth part of them a taste, and consequently they proved inadequate to the task.

The use of fire afforded a greater probability of success; for (from whatever cause) it was observed, that if wood, burnt to the state of charcoal, without flame, and immediately taken from the fire, was laid in their way, they crowded to it in such amazing numbers, as soon to extinguish it, although with the destruction of thousands of them in effecting it. This part of their history appears scarcely credible; but, on making the experiment

ment myself, I found it literally true. I laid fire, as above described, where there appeared but a very few ants, and in the course of a few minutes thousands were seen crowding to it and upon it, till it was perfectly covered by their dead bodies. Holes were, therefore, dug at proper distances, in a cane piece, and fire made in each of them. Prodigious quantities perished in this way; for those fires, when extinguished, appeared in the shape of mole-hills, from the numbers of their dead bodies heaped on them. Nevertheless, they soon appeared again as numerous as ever. This may be accounted for, not only from their amazing fecundity, but that probably none of the breeding ants, or young brood, suffered from the experiment. For the same reason, the momentary general application of fire, by burning the cane-trail (or straw of the cane) as it lay on the ground, proved as little effectual; for although, perhaps, multitudes of ants might have been destroyed, yet in general they would escape, by retiring to their nests, under cover, and out of its reach, and the breeding ants, with their young progeny, must have remained unhurt.

Mr. Smeathman (who wrote a paper on the termites, or white ants of Africa, and was at Grenada at this time) imagined that these ants were not the cause of it. The injury the canes are subject to, is said to arise from a species of small flies, generated on their stems and leaves; and that the ants were attracted in such multitudes, merely to feed on them. There is no doubt, that where this blast existed, it constituted part of the food of the ants; but this theory was overthrown, by observing, that by far the greatest part of the injured canes, had no appearance of that sort, but became sickly and withered, apparently for want of nourishment. Besides, had that been the case, the canes must have been benefited instead of being hurt by these insects. For the cure of the blast, he proposed the application of train oil, which had not the least effect in pre-

venting the mischief, and, if it had, could never have been generally enough used to answer the purpose.

This calamity, which resisted so long the efforts of the planters, was at length removed by another, which, however ruinous to the other islands in the West Indies in other respects, was to Grenada a very great blessing, namely, the hurricane in 1780; without which it is probable the cultivation of the sugar-cane in the most valuable parts of that island, must have, in a great measure, been thrown aside, at least for some years. How this hurricane produced this effect, has been considered rather as a matter of wonder and surprise, than attempted to be explained. By attending to the following observations, the difficulty, I believe, will be removed.

These ants make their nests, or cells, for the reception of their eggs, only under or among the roots of such trees or plants as are not only capable of protecting them from heavy rains, but are at the same time so firm in the ground, as to afford a secure basis to support them against any injury occasioned by the agitation of the usual winds. This double qualification the sugar-cane possesses in a very great degree; for a stool of canes (which is the assemblage of its numerous roots, where the stems begin to shoot out) is almost impenetrable to rain, and is also, from the amazing numbers and extension of the roots, firmly fixed to the ground. Thus, when every other part of the field is drenched with rain, the ground under those stools will be found quite dry, as I and every other planter must have observed when digging out the stools in a cane-piece, to prepare for re-planting. And when canes are lodged or laid down by the usual winds, or from their own luxuriance, the stools commonly remain in the ground; hence, in ordinary weather, their nests are in a state of perfect security.

The lime, lemon, orange, and some other trees, afford these insects the same advantages, from the great number and quality of their roots, which are firmly fixed to the earth, and are so

umbrageous as to prevent even a very heavy rain from reaching the ground underneath.

On the contrary, these ants nests are never found at the roots of trees or plants incapable of affording the above protection; such, for instance, is the coffee tree. It is, indeed, sufficiently firm in the ground, but it has only one large tap root, which goes straight downwards, and its lateral roots are so small as to afford no shelter against rain. So again, the roots of the cotton shrub run too near the surface of the earth to prevent the access of rain, and are neither sufficiently permanent, nor firm enough to resist the agitation by the usual winds. The same observation will be found true with respect to cocoa, plantains, maize, tobacco, indigo, and many other species of trees and plants. Trees or plants of the first description always suffer more or less in lands infested with these ants; whereas those of the latter never do. Hence we may fairly conclude, that the mischief done by these insects is occasioned only by their lodging and making their nests about the roots of particular trees or plants. Thus the roots of the sugar-canes are somehow or other so much injured by them, as to be incapable of performing their office of supplying due nourishment to the plants, which, therefore, become sickly and stunted, and consequently do not afford juices fit for making sugar, in either tolerable quantity or quality. That these ants do not feed on any part of the canes or trees affected, seems very clear; for no loss of substance, in either the one or the other, has ever been observed; nor have they ever been seen carrying off vegetable substances of any sort. The truth of this will farther appear by the following fact.

A very fine lime-tree, in the pasture of Mount-William estate, at a considerable distance from any canes, but near the dwelling-house, had sickened and died soon after the ants made their appearance on that estate. After it had remained in that state, without a single leaf, or the least verdure,

for several months, on examination, a very few ants appeared about it; but when, with the manager's permission, it was grubbed out, a most astonishing quantity of ants and ants nests, full of eggs, were found about its roots, all of which were quite dead, and many of them rotten.

That this tree constituted no part of their food, is quite certain; but while it continued to afford them proper security for their nests, they still continued their abode.

On the contrary, there is the greatest presumption that these ants are carnivorous, and feed entirely on animal substances; for if a dead insect, or animal food of any sort, was laid in their way, it was immediately carried off. It was found almost impossible to preserve cold victuals from them. The largest carcases, as soon as they began to become putrid, so as that they could separate the parts, soon disappeared. Negroes, with fores, had difficulty to keep the ants from the edges of them. They destroyed all other vermin, rats, in particular, of which they cleared every plantation they came upon, which they probably effected by attacking their young. It was found that poultry, or other small stock, could be raised with the greatest difficulty; and the eyes, nose, and other emunctories of the bodies of dying or dead animals were instantly covered with them.

In the year 1780, many of the sugar estates which had been first infested with these ants, had been either abandoned, or put into other kind of produce, principally cotton, which, as I have above observed, do not afford conveniency for their nests. In consequence, the ants had there so much decreased in number, that the cultivation of sugar had again began to be re-assumed; but it was very different in those plantations which had but lately been attacked, and were still in sugar, at Duquesne, in particular; at that time they were pernicious in the highest degree, spreading themselves on all sides with great rapidity, when a sudden stop

was put to their progress by the hurricane which happened near the middle of October that year. How this was effected, I think, may be explained by attending to the above observations.

From what has been said it appears, that a dry situation, so as to exclude the ordinary rains from their nests or cells, appropriated for the reception of their eggs, or young brood, is absolutely necessary; but that these situations, however well calculated for the usual weather, could not afford this protection from rain during the hurricane, may be easily conceived.

When, by the violence of the tempest, heavy pieces of artillery were removed from their places, and houses and sugar-works levelled with the ground, there can be no doubt that trees, and every thing growing above ground, must have greatly suffered. This was the case; great numbers of trees and plants (which resist commonly the ordinary winds) were torn out by the roots. The canes were universally either lodged or twisted about, as if by a whirlwind, or torn out of the ground altogether. In the latter case, the breeding ants, with their progeny, must have been exposed to inevitable destruction, from the deluge of rain which fell at the same time. The number of canes, however, thus torn out of the ground, could not have been adequate to the sudden diminution of the sugar-ants; but it is easy to conceive, that the roots of canes which remained on the ground, and the earth about them, were so agitated and shaken, and at the same time the ants nests were so broken open, or injured, by the violence of the wind, as to admit the torrents of rain accompanying it. I apprehend, therefore, that the principal destruction of these ants must have been thus effected.

Two circumstances tended to facilitate this happy effect. Many of the roots of the canes infected, as above observed, were either dead or rotten, so as not to be capable of making the

same resistance to the wind as those in perfect health. And this hurricane happened so very late as the month of October, when the canes are always so high above ground as to give the wind sufficient hold of them, which at an earlier period would not have been the case.

That many of the cane-ants were swept off by the torrents of rain into the rivers and ravines, and thus perished, I have no doubt; but if we consider the obstacles to this being very general, it could have had but small effect in considerably reducing their numbers; for on flat land it could not have happened. In hanging or hilly land, the cane-trash would afford great shelter, and the ants would naturally retire to their nests for security, when they found their danger.

Some have supposed that the sugar-ants, after a certain time, degenerate, and become inoffensive; and in proof of this, they say Martinique and Barbadoes were free from their bad effects without a hurricane or any other apparent cause.

The idea of any such extraordinary and unheard of deviation of nature, is too contemptible to deserve an answer: but the reason is obvious. The planters there either abandoned their cane-lands, or planted them with coffee, cocoa, cotton, indigo, &c. none of which, according to the above observations, afford the ants proper conveniency for the propagation of their species; and therefore their numbers must have so much decreased as to remit the culture of the sugar-cane as before. At the same time, it is very probable, that this diminution might have in part been owing to something of the hurricane kind; for it is well known, that strong squalls of wind, attended with heavy rains, are frequent in the West-Indies, although they do not last so long, nor are so violent, as to deserve the name of a hurricane.

It must not, however, be denied, that though nature for a time may permit a particular species of animals to become

come so unproportionably numerous as to endanger some other parts of her works; she herself will, in due time, put a check upon the too great increase; and that is often done by an increase of some other animal inimical to the former destroyers. In the present case, however, nothing of that sort appeared; therefore, when a plain natural cause, obvious to our senses, occurred, by which we can account for the amazing and sudden decrease of those ruinous insects, it is unnecessary to recur to other possible causes, too minute for our investigation.

All I have said on this subject would certainly be of little or no consequence, did it not lead to the true method of cultivating the sugar-cane on lands infested with those destructive insects; in which point of view, however, it becomes important.

If then the above doctrine be just, it follows, that the whole of our attention must be turned to the destruction of the nests of these ants, and consequently the breeding ants with their eggs or young brood. In order to effect this, all trees and fences, under the roots of which these ants commonly take their residence, should first be grubbed out; particularly lime fences, which are very common in Grenada, and which generally suffered from the ants before the canes appeared in the least injured. After which the canes should be stumped out with care, and the stools burnt as soon as possible, together with the field trash in considerable heaps, and to throw the stools, as soon as dug out of the ground, into them, and immediately apply fire. By this means multitudes must be destroyed; for the field trash, when dry, burns with great rapidity. The land should then be ploughed, or hoe ploughed twice (but at least once) in the wettest season of the year, in order to admit the rains, before it is hoed for planting the cane. By these means these insects, I apprehend, will be so much reduced in number as at least to secure a good plant cane,

But it is the custom in most of the West-India islands to permit the canes to rattoon; that is, after the canes have once been cut down, for the purpose of making sugar, they are suffered to grow up again, without re-planting; and this generally for three or four years, but sometimes for ten, fifteen, or twenty. In this mode of culture, the stools become larger every year, so as to grow out of the ground to a considerable height, and by that means afford more and more shelter to the ants nests; therefore for two or three successive crops, the canes should be replanted yearly, so as not only to afford as little cover as possible for the ants nests, but continually to disturb such ants as may have escaped, in the business of propagating their species.

That considerable expence and labour will attend putting this method into execution, there is no doubt. An expensive cure, however, is better than none; but, from the general principles of agriculture, I am of opinion, that the planter will be amply repaid for his trouble, by the goodness of his crops, in consequence of the superior tilth the land will receive in the proposed method. Of this we have a proof in the island of St Kitt's, where they constantly replant their canes yearly; and it is very well known, that an acre of cane land there, gives a greater return than the same quantity in any other island of the West-Indies. In St. Kitt's, five hogheads per acre is common yielding in good land; in Grenada, from two to three hogheads from plant canes, and half that quantity from rattoons. Thus, although the St. Kitt's planter cuts only one half of this cane land yearly, in a given number of years he makes a greater revenue than the Grenada planter on the cane land which is yearly cut.

Some may be of opinion, that it would be more advantageous to change the produce, than to pursue the proposed method; on which I shall only observe, that it appears to me, that one half of the usual crop of sugar,

this produced, will be more advantageous to the planter (when, at the same time, progress is making in destroying the sugar ants) than a full crop of any other produce.

In some very few situations, cotton perhaps may be excepted. As to coffee, it is to be considered that it gives no return till the third year after planting, and not a full crop till the seventh; and indigo not only exceedingly impoverishes the land, but is unhealthy to the negroes. Add to this, that far the greatest part of sugar-lands are unfit for the culture of any of these.

It would carry this letter to too

great a length, were I to adduce all that may be said on this subject; I shall therefore conclude by observing, that the best proof of the truth of the above doctrine, will be the success attending the proposed method of cultivation, or one of the same tendency; viz. to attempt the destruction of the nests of these insects; and consequently, the breeding ants, with their young broods; for their fecundity appears to be prodigiously great, so as to render it altogether impossible to destroy them by poison, which can never be generally enough used to effect that purpose.

The following Letter, written by Dr. FRANKLIN to one of his Friends, on the EFFECTS OF LEAD upon the Human Constitution, is extracted from a valuable Work, written by Dr. John Hunter, Chief Physician to the Troops on the Jamaica Station, intitled, "Observations on the Diseases of the Army."

DEAR FRIEND,

I Recollect that when I had the great pleasure of seeing you at Southampton, now a twelve month since, we had some conversation on the bad effects of lead taken inwardly; and that, at your request, I promised to send you in writing a particular account of several facts I then mentioned to you, of which you thought some good use might be made. I now sit down to fulfil that promise.

The first thing I remember of this kind, was a general discourse in Boston, when I was a boy, of a complaint from North Carolina against New England rum; that it poisoned their people, giving them the dry belly-ach, with a loss of the use of their limbs. The distillers being examined on the occasion, it was found that several of them used leaden still heads and worms, and the physicians were of opinion, that the mischief was occasioned by that use of lead. The Legislature of the Massachusetts thereupon passed an act prohibiting, under severe penalties, the use of such still heads and worms hereafter.

In 1744, being in London, I went to work in the printing-house of Mr.

Palmer, in Bartholomew-close, as a compositor. I there found a practice, I had never seen before, of drying a case of types (which are wet in distribution) by placing it sloping before the fire. I found this had the additional advantage, when the types were not only dried, but heated, of being comfortable to the hands working over them in cold weather. I therefore sometimes heated my case when the types did not want drying; but an old workman observing it, advised me not to do so, telling me I might lose the use of my hands by it, as two of our companions had nearly done; one of whom that used to earn his guinea a week could not then make more than ten shillings; and the other, who had the dangles, but seven and sixpence. This, with a kind of obscure pain that I had sometimes felt as it were in the bones of my hand, when working over the types made very hot, induced me to omit the practice. But talking afterwards with Mr. James, a letter-founder, in the close; and asking him if his people, who worked over little furnaces of melted metal, were not subject to that disorder, he made light of any danger from the effluvia, but ascribed it to particles

of

of the metal swallowed with their food by slovenly workmen, who went to their meals after handling the metal without well washing their fingers, so that some of the metalline particles were taken off by their bread and eaten with it. This appeared to have some reason in it, but the pain I had experienced made me still afraid of those effluvia.

Being in Derbyshire, at some of the furnaces for smelting of lead ore, I was told that the smoke of those furnaces was pernicious to the neighbouring grass and other vegetables; but I do not recollect to have heard any thing of the effect of such vegetables eaten by animals. It may be well to make the enquiry.

In America I have often observed that on the roofs of our shingled houses, where moss is apt to grow in northern exposures, if there be any thing on the roof planted with white lead; such as ballusters, or frames of dormant windows, &c. there is constantly a streak on the shingles from such paint down to the eaves, on which no moss will grow, but the wood remains constantly clean and free from it. We seldom drink rain-water that falls on our houses, and if we did, perhaps the small quantity of lead descending from such paint, might not be sufficient to produce any sensible ill effect on our bodies. But I have been told of a case in Europe, I forget the place, where a whole family was afflicted with what we call the dry belly-ach, or, *colica picorum*, by drinking rain-water. It was at a country-seat, which being situated too high to have the advantage of a well, was supplied with water from a tank which received the water from the leaded roofs. This had been drank

several years without mischief; but some young trees planted near the house, growing up above the roof, and shedding their leaves upon it, it was supposed that an acid in those leaves had corroded the lead they covered, and furnished the water of that year with its baneful particles and qualities.

When I was in Paris with Sir John Pringle, in 1767, he visited La Charite, an hospital particularly famous for the cure of that malady, and brought from thence a pamphlet, containing a list of the names of persons, specifying their professions or trades, who had been cured there. I had the curiosity to examine that list, and found that all the patients were of trades that some way or other use or work in lead; such as plumbers, glaziers, painters, &c. excepting only two kinds, stone-cutters and foldiers. In them, I could not reconcile to my notion that lead was the cause of that disorder. But on my mentioning this difficulty to a physician of that hospital, he informed me, that the stone-cutters are continually using melted lead to fix the ends of iron ballustrades in stone; and that the foldiers had been employed by painters, as labourers in grinding of colours.

This, my dear friend, is all I can at present recollect on the subject. You will see by it, that the opinion of this mischievous effect from lead, is, at least, above sixty years old. And you will observe with concern how long a useful truth may be known and exist, before it is generally received and practised on.

I am
ever yours, most affectionately,
Philadelphia,
July 31, 1786.

B. FRANKLIN.

CHEMICAL OPINIONS OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

TO trace the progress of knowledge is one of the most pleasing employments of life. Our vanity often induces us to believe

that the age in which we live has made the most rapid improvements of any. It must be confessed, that chemical knowledge has been great-

ly advanced of late years; but the following analysis of the opinions of Mayow, a chemist who lived in the last century, will shew that many of what we deem new discoveries were known at that time.

"In the distillation of nitre, the acid passes over into the receiver, and a substance exceedingly like alkali, is left behind: again, if sulphur (inflammable matter) be repeatedly thrown upon nitre in fusion, the residuum is improperly called *fixed nitre*, because it really is only one of the constituent parts of nitre; so in deflagrating equal quantities of nitre and tartar, we have an alkaline residuum equal in weight to the whole of the tartar, which is improperly called *salt of tartar*, because part is supplied by the nitre; and tartar, besides a fixed alkaline salt, contains a spirit and a fetid oil, which are dissipated during the deflagration.

By adding nitrous acid to any alkali, or to a volatile salt (which will serve instead of alkali) nitre will be formed.

Nitre may be found in almost any soil, impregnated by the atmosphere, but most abundantly in such as are full of sulphur (inflammable matter) and fixed or volatile alkali. Such soils are generally supposed to attract nitre from the air; nor can it be doubted, that the air contributes greatly to its production, since earth lixiviated and then exposed to the atmosphere, will be found, after some time, to be again impregnated with nitre.

But it is only the more volatile and finer part of nitre that is furnished by the atmosphere: nor does the nitre contained, as is commonly believed, in the air, differ only in volatility from the common kind; for the alkaline ingredient must be derived from the earth; since, on account of its fixedness, we cannot suppose it to reside in so thin a medium as the air. *Earth* indeed seems to be sulphur and alkali in close combination, for if these two bodies

be fused together in a gentle heat, a dark coloured mass very like earth will be formed; the only difference, perhaps, is, that in earth, these principles are not yet mature and more firmly united."

A loose analogy! I confess, and a lame conclusion after so promising a beginning! but in their widerviews of aeriform substances, modern chemists have yet only conjecturally decompounded the fixed alkalis.

The next chapter treats of the nitrous acid.

Mayow was once in doubt whether this acid might not exist, full-formed, in the atmosphere, for some salts, he observes, as the vitriols, calcined till their acid be quite expelled, will again contract acidity on exposure to the air, and become in some measure nitrous; and iron filings are corroded by moist air as by an acid. Hence, if we conclude, that an acid of the nitrous kind resides in the atmosphere, we may suppose, that it forms nitre by combining with the alkaline salts, with which it may happen to come in contact.

But upon reflection, he thought the acid too dense to float in so rare a medium; and moreover, the nitro-atmospherical salt, of whatever nature it really may be, is certainly the pabulum of fire, and also, in respiration, is received into the blood of animals; now it can scarce be nitrous acid in substance, because this acid destroys, instead of supporting both fire and life.

But although nitrous acid do not exist in substance in the air, yet, as nitre is, in part, derived from thence, and as its alkaline part is entirely supplied by the earth, its acid must be drawn in part, at least, from the air; and to perceive more clearly, what ingredient of nitrous acid really comes from this source, attention must be paid to the following circumstances.

Mr. Boyle's experiments shew, beyond a doubt, that the air contributes to the support of flame;

but this effect is not produced by the whole, but only by the more active part of this fluid, since after the extinction of a candle in a close vessel, there always remains a large quantity of air; and no inflammable substance can be set on fire in an exhausted receiver.

Nitre mixed with sulphur will burn rapidly in vacuo, and under water, which proves that the fire-particles of air, or those necessary to support flame, are contained in nitre, and constitute its active and igneous part. Take gunpowder, and reduce it to a mass of firm consistence, by means of a little water: with this mass fill a tube, closed at one end, and ram it tight; next set it on fire at the open end; then invert the tube, and plunge it into water; and the gunpowder will totally burn away: when mixed up in the same manner, it will also burn in vacuo, where all other fire goes out for want of its aerial pabulum—a decisive proof that particles of fire-air, such as are necessary to support flame, are contained in nitre.

I should be glad to know whether this experiment and this conclusion are ranked by the translator of Scheele, among the obscure hints.

Nitre, therefore, infers the author, does not, as Willis supposes, burn by virtue of any sulphur it may contain, but of its fire-air: and to produce combustion or flame, the concurrence both of particles of fire and sulphur (inflammable matter) is necessary; hence no inflammable substance will burn in vacuo, unless nitre be mixed with it; neither will nitre deflagrate without inflammable matter, which shews, that it contains no such matter. The reason why the deflagration of matter is so different from the burning of any inflammable substance is, because in nitre, the particles of fire-air are very closely condensed, and break forth in great numbers at once; hence, the impetuosity of the flame in this case, the form of which de-

pends chiefly on the particles of fire-air.

Boyle's experiments on the burning of gunpowder in vacuo, he observes, do not prove, that the access of air is necessary to this effect. He thinks the gunpowder goes out before it is all burnt away, for want of an uninterrupted chain of particles of fire-air, which the atmosphere, when pressing upon the grains of gunpowder, supplies.

Since then, nitre is in part derived from the atmosphere, and since it is found to contain the igneous particles of that body, these very particles are the principle which it derives from thence; and since the atmospherical ingredient of nitre exists in the acid, the igneo-aerial particles of nitre, contained in the acid, are the ingredient supplied by the atmosphere.

He goes on to impute the extreme activity and causticity of spirit of nitre to these particles; and observes, that nothing approaches nearer to the nature of fire than the orange-coloured acid; the red appearance observed in the vessels in which it is distilled, seems to be owing to these particles thrown into motion, to which fire or heat is always owing.

But why, it may be asked, is not nitrous acid combustible? he answers, because it contains moisture.

Here, by abandoning his principles, he falls into error: otherwise he might have been led to the striking experiment of mixing nitrous acid with oil.

The next chapter is employed on a subject of research, still more profound: it undertakes to ascertain more precisely how the atmospherical ingredient of nitre produces inflammation.

He rejects the hypothesis of his time, and which has maintained its ground in this country ever since, that heat is produced by the small particles of any body thrown into motion; and embraces a middle opi-

nion;

nion; that heat indeed consists in the motion of minute particles, but they must be of a particular substance, of fire-air. To shew that heat is not produced by sulphureous matter in motion, he observes, that nitre kept in fusion in a crucible over the fire, through the bottom and sides of which heat must be continually passing, does not deflagrate, yet this effect will immediately be produced by the addition of any combustible matter: therefore heat cannot consist of any such matter, since it has not the same qualities: again, if a piece of polished metal be held in the flame of a candle, it will be penetrated by heat, but the sulphureous particles will be deposited on the surface in the form of soot, which shews, that they are too gross to enter into the substance of the metal.

Mayow imputes heat to the motion of nitro-atmospherical particles; the moderns, as it is produced in common combustion, to their condensation; he had no suspicion

(To be continued.)

that the aeriform state might depend on the interposition of this subtle matter, between grosser particles, and therefore could not suppose, that it was precipitated or thrown out, as they approached each other and returned to a liquid or a solid state.

Which train of reasoning upon this difficult subject is the more logical? There undoubtedly are many cases in which the temperature is lowered as a body dilates, and where an apparent influx of heat produces no effect but expansion; and again, where an increase of temperature accompanies contraction of bulk. Then what can be more plausible than the idea conveyed by capacity for heat, and the analogy of water alternately imbibed by a sponge, and squeezed out of it, by which we gain at least some conception of a mechanism placed so far beyond the sphere of the senses? It has always been a great recommendation of false opinions when they were accompanied by some analogy easily grasped by the imagination.

OBSERVATIONS UPON ÆSCHYLUS.

personæ, pallæque repertor honestæ
Æschylus, et modicis intravit pulpita tignis,
Et docuit magnumque loqui, nitique cothurno.

HOR. ART. POET. v. 278.

TO enter into a long detail concerning the life of Æschylus, would be equally useless as absurd; since the honourable mention which has been made of him, as a brave warrior, is sufficiently known. In this paper I shall, therefore, endeavour briefly, to delineate the most striking outlines of his character as a poet, and proceed with some remarks upon his plays.

At the time when he flourished, the Grecian drama was in a rude and uncultivated state; and indeed he was very justly stiled *The Father of Tragedy*, since he was the first who introduced a dialogue between the songs or chorusses; whereas Thespis, who lived about fifty years before him,

only invented a mere recital of verses. As every one must be acquainted with the origin and progress of the drama, it is here unnecessary to trace it through its different states; suffice it only to remark, that so captivated were the Athenians with this novel entertainment, that from the most unpolished beginnings, it was brought to a regular perfection, in the short space of seventy-two years.

From his youth, Æschylus, as might be expected, was an enthusiastic admirer of Homer; since from that source, he could derive sublimity of expression, and majesty of style. In many of his plays, and particularly in the "Seven Generals against Thebes," we may observe very beautiful

tiful and judicious imitations; nor was he ashamed of owning the obligations he owed to this bard; but on the contrary, being once highly complimented upon his tragedies by a certain Athenian, he is reported to have answered, with a humility natural to a great mind, *μηδὲ τὰς τίμαρχας τῶν μεγάλων Ὀμήρου διπλοῦν*.*

To compare Æschylus either with Euripides or Sophocles, would be to liken the splendid and dazzling radiance of the sun to the more mild and sober lustre of the moon. The former is bold and elevated in his ideas, he is nervous and animated in his stile; whilst the two latter are more correct in their subjects, more tender in their descriptions, and abound more in moral sentiments. Euripides drew his characters from philosophy; Sophocles from nature. Yet, surely, they labour under a great mistake, who imagine that in Æschylus there is a deficiency of pathos. For very few certainly were more acquainted with the human heart, or knew better how to fill the soul with a calm serenity of grief, which (as a learned and elegant poet observes) “at once chastises and refines it, and thereby teaches it to support its own afflictions with a manly fortitude; or to feel for the afflictions of others with a sensibility corrected by reason.” Having said thus much of his composition in general, I shall proceed to give some account of the play entitled ΠΡΟΜΗΘΕΥΣ ΔΕΣΜΩΤΗΣ.

Prometheus, the son of Japetus and Themis, having stolen fire from heaven, and bestowed it upon mortals, so enraged Jupiter, that he consigned him over to his infernal ministers, Strength and Force, for punishment. He is therefore introduced in the first scene, preparing to be chained to a rock; after which the nymphæ Oceanitides, and Father Ocean himself, endeavour to console and appease him, but in vain. In the fourth act, Io, the daughter of Inachus, who was transformed into a cow, appears, and

learns from Prometheus her future misfortunes. The play concludes with a message, sent from Jupiter by Mercury, who threatens him with still greater calamities, if he will not declare the marriage which shall be fatal to the Thunderer; he persists in a firm refusal; on which account, a tempest is excited, of which there is a most masterly description.

In most of his tragedies, Æschylus seems to have endeavoured to inspire the Athenians with a just abhorrence of tyrannical and arbitrary government; and hath exhorted them to cherish a sincere and ardent affection for the liberty which they then enjoyed. With this design he has painted Jupiter in the strongest colours, as an usurper of his father's throne; governing with absolute sway; impetuous, inexorable, severe, and ungrateful even towards his friends. On the contrary, he hath tempered the character of Prometheus “with the milk of human nature;” and has proposed him as an useful example of a man, unshaken in his virtue, and constant in his resolution, whom, as Horace says,

nec vultus instantis tyranni
mente quatit solidâ.

How fine a contrast does his philanthropy, his fortitude, and moderation display, when opposed to the unbounded cruelty, and unrestrained ferociousness of Jupiter. The one, by wishing totally to annihilate the human race, steels our hearts against all the finer feelings of nature; whilst the other claims our admiration, and excites our pity, by appearing the author of happiness to men; their universal Parent; their God. The love of justice shines forth in the conduct of Prometheus, when we consider him as the avenger of the cause of Jupiter, and the chief instrument by whom the rebellious Titans were defeated; whilst the blackness of ingratitude seems to be a leading charac-

* Vide Athen. and Plutarch.

teristic of the Thunderer, who, unmindful of benefits received, severely punished the son of Themis, for his benevolence to mortals, and loaded him with ignominious chains.— Though overwhelmed by a tide of misfortunes, he relaxes not his firmness, he forgets not his humanity; he expresses no indignation against men, nor considers them as the cause of his calamities; and though threatened by Mercury with numberless tortures, yet neither can the benevolent anxiety of the Chorus; nor the mild entreaties of Father Ocean; nor even the distresses of the wretched Io avail, in persuading him to disclose to Jupiter the secrets of those nuptials, which he foretold should deprive him of the kingdom.

Such is the principal character in the play; and in the portraits of the other personages, *Æschylus* has exhibited a nice and judicious discrimination, equal to the fertility of his invention. Amongst those, the two allegorical beings, *Κερατος και Βια*, Strength and Force, are introduced as the savage and unrelenting persecutors of Prometheus. So stern and unfeeling is their nature, and so inhuman their cruelty, that they even rejoice in his misery, and endeavour to accumulate his punishments. Mercury seems more polished in his manners, if not more mild in his disposition: As the messenger of Jove, his province is to announce the still severer punishments, which should await Prometheus, if he should refuse an explanation of that fatal secret, at which he had before mysteriously hinted.

The tenderness of Vulcan, and his reluctance to execute his father's commands, are the natural result of consanguinity and long acquaintance. He laments the misfortunes of the god; and though he dares not to resist the powerful laws of necessity, yet he is unwillingly made the instrument of vengeance. In the Chorus, which consists of the nymphs Oceanitides, we may observe a timid anxiety natural to the sex; yet, at the same

time, an amiable benevolence, united with firm prudence. They strongly express their detestation of Jupiter's cruelty; and in the last scene of the play, when advised by Mercury to retire, and fly from the violence of the approaching tempest, they shew a generous and unshaken firmness of mind, in declaring that they would rather participate the calamities of Prometheus, than be guilty of any base actions, and forsake him in the most dangerous extremity. The entrance of Ocean is bold and majestic; his character interests the mind, he doth not profess much, and perform little, but makes an ingenuous offer of his services, and tells Prometheus, that he hopes it will be in his power to bend the haughty spirit of Jove. Lastly, Io is described of a tender and gentle nature; as an universal benefactor to mankind, she reverences the unfortunate god; as a wretched sufferer, she pities him: but so deeply oppressed is she with the weight of her own calamities, that instead of consulting for his relief, she is anxious to be informed of her future destiny.

The scenery, though wild and irregular, is highly picturesque, and possesses a kind of savage dignity, which has a great effect upon the mind. Imagine to yourself a shaggy and desolate rock, in the extreme parts of the inhospitable Scythia; against whose clefts sides the tumultuous deep dashes its boiling waves. Here the infernal progeny of Pallas and Styx drag the wretched Prometheus, whilst Vulcan binds him down with adamantine chains. After their departure from the stage, the sea-nymphs are beheld hovering in the air, and having alighted upon the precipice, lament the fate of their relation. Ocean then makes a majestic entrance upon a flying griffin; and in the latter part of the tragedy, the glaring sheets of lightning, the bursts of thunder, the roaring of the contending elements, and the general convulsion of nature, exhibit a scene full of terror and sublimity.

It may not be improper here to mention,

tion, that the opinion of those who assert, that in this play, Prometheus was bound to Caucasus, appears to me truly erroneous and absurd. A learned grammarian had made this judicious observation, *ἴσως δὲ ὅτι ὁ, κατὰ τὸν ποιεῖν λόγον ἐν Καννάσῃ φησὶ δεδούκει τὸν Προμηθεῖα, ἀλλὰ πρὸς τοῖς Εὐρώπαισι τιμασὶ τῷ Ωκεανῷ, ὅς ἐστι τῶν πρὸς τῇ ἰσθμῷ λέγομενον ἐστὶ συμβαλὺν.* This annotation is undoubtedly referred to the 725th verse of the play, where Prometheus persuades Io not to pass over the Hybristes, until she should arrive at the lofty mountain Caucasus. Now, if he himself had been chained to that mountain, how ridiculous would have been this advice. This false idea is well refuted by the Chorus in the 411th line; where, after having related the various kingdoms who have mourned the fate of Prometheus, they make mention of the inhabitants of the cities near Caucasus, *ἐν ἱερῇσι τοῖς*

πολίσμασι, Καννάσῃ πύλας ἑμάρτας; which they would have spoken of in a different manner, if they had been then in that country*.

Throughout the whole play, Æschylus hath closely observed, what Aristotle makes mention of, who says, *δὲ ἰδίῃ καὶ φέρεται πρᾶξι τοῦτον, καθάρσιν καὶ καθαρίσιν.* Yet, in refining these passions, he hath preferred such a just moderation, that he appears no less a philosopher than a poet. In every part, indeed, there is an admirable unity of action, place, and time; a beautiful simplicity of plot, united with a sublimity of style.

In my next paper, I intend to go through the first act; and shall endeavour to make some critical observations, and point out those expressions, which possess a peculiar beauty, and produce similar passages from various authors.

BRUTUS.

TO THE EDITORS OF THE LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN,

HAVING in your magazine for March, observed some detached thoughts, as they are called, upon the Odes of Horace; without wishing to enter into any controversy, I cannot help remonstrating against the absurdity of them. It is not my present intention either to attempt an encomium, or hazard a critique upon Horace; since in all ages, and by many great and learned men, he has been successfully commended without adulation, and censured without acrimony. But when we find his odes (for they have been pronounced worthy of that name by the most impartial judges) compared to unmeaning songs, and his moral sentences to the heated effusions of inebriety, we feel ourselves actuated by different sensations, and whilst we are roused by an

Quid vetat et nosmet. — HOA.

honest indignation to defend him from such injuries, a strong degree of contempt impels us to despise them. In all his light, as well as his serious poems, is discernible a great perspicuity and strength of style, and above all, a stoutness of judgment, which, in traversing the open and spacious walks of literature, disdains to be led captive by the sorceries of a self-deluding art, and to be fettered by ridiculous minuteness. With a lively imagination, an elegant taste, and a conception most masculine and correct, he united an artless and amiable negligence. In his lighter poems, may be found that *ἰννευαλία*, which is defined by Aristotle *πρᾶξι καὶ ὕμνῳ*, and in the more grave is preferred that *συμμετρία*, which the same philosopher most accurately and beau-

* Shutz, in his excellent edition of Æschylus, has supported this opinion; and from him have I borrowed the original idea.

† Vide Tracts by a Warburtonian.

fully explains by *καλαὴ καὶ εὐχρησίου* *καὶ εὐχρησίου*. The Odes, which the gentleman has alluded to in that magazine, unfortunately possess a greater degree of beauty than some others which have accidentally escaped his penetrating eye. He forgets that in every line, the strictest classical purity is conspicuous, together with a clear vein of the most refined genius. They are, indeed, * *φωκιστὰ συντομία*; but to those who do not comprehend the meaning of them (and it appears from

some passages produced in your 33d number, and a kind of paraphrase of the 2d ode in a former magazine, that this gentleman does not) their charms must appear clouded, and their clearness involved in darkness. If, then, instead of calumniating such a poet, and filling your valuable miscellany with original songs, this gentleman would first understand what he attempts to criticize, many of your readers would be much gratified.

I am, gentlemen, your's, &c. B.

ESSAY ON THE ANCIENT NAVIGATION OF THE VENETIANS.

Continued from Page 205.

THE doctrine or rule of the *Martelojo* then, was an abridgment of the art of navigation of those times, reduced to the greatest simplicity, to assist the memory; in which the utility to be derived from it to navigation was not small, as every sailor might thereby, with few talents, be enabled to learn, in a few figures, the rules for resolving all the problems of steering.

The rule of *Martelojo* of the ancient Venetians, was divided into four parts. The first was termed *alargar*; the second, *avanzari*; the third, *ritorno*; the fourth, *avanzo de ritorno*; with which four parts correspond the four columns of the first table.

These numbers the author calls *case*, that is to say roots; which were likewise stiled *case* by our ancestors. The celebrated Toaldo, to use his own words, declares he had puzzled his brains for some days before he could understand what they were, and for what purpose these numbers were designed. I have, however, been much more fortunate than him, in having discovered, at the first glance of the eye, that they were radical numbers, and which were to be used in working the rule of three by the head; this I pointed out to the Abbé Morelli the instant he gave into my hands the atlas of Bianchi.

The name of *case* soon led me to discover that roots was the subject alluded to, and this as quickly enabled me to discover the use to which these numbers were to be applied, which appeared in the eyes of many mysterious and cabalistical. Having set myself to examine, separately, first, the figures of the table, and the other explanations placed under it, I easily comprehended, that the first was designed to do with the compasses the same rule of three, in like manner that the numbers were destined to do it off hand, without either compasses, line, or paper. I perceived that the scale which served to measure the base, or, the given side of the angles, was divided into hundredth parts, which most certainly became necessary, if we wished to multiply and divide with ease off hand, knowing the property of the cypher, which being added, multiplies the quantity ten times; and being taken away diminishes ten times. The necessity of making these calculations by head, induced the ancient pilots to divide the scale into decimal parts. This custom was then so universal, that in all the sea-charts I have found them so divided.

Hence Zannetti came far short of the reality, when he imagined that the lines drawn round the edge of the chart, which he had sold to the library at Parma, were the de-

* Pindar.

degrees of latitude; being simply a scale of miles, but a universal scale; whence it is that we do not see it determined with numbers. The same thing may be observed in the chart of Andrew Bianchi, published by me, as well as in many other manuscripts found at Venice.

These scales were all divided into ten lines, every one of which might be made equivalent to ten and to one hundred, according as calculation required. With these they found with the compasses the value of the sides of every triangle; the result of which was arithmetically expressed in numbers to facilitate calculation, and to render it more easy and expeditious.

In one chart is a small scale upon the square, the small figure or square of reduction, if I may so speak, divided into four parts, two of which are alternately divided into five lines, every one of which equals ten undetermined parts, marked underneath twice 50; the whole scale comprehending two hundred equal undetermined parts. Every one of the small squares of the larger square being equal to one hundred parts of the scale, so that the total division of the great scale is 8, or 800 equal portions.

I observed, however, that every one of the small squares is supposed by the author to contain 20 miles, and consequently the whole square will contain 160 miles, and indeed it would still be attended with advantage to have one more division of the mile into decimal parts, as one might then determine, even to two tenths of a mile.

This then, which the author calls both a circle and square, divided and subdivided into so many parts, and intersected by so many lines, was nearly equivalent, among the ancients, to the modern square of reduction; with which, by means of the compasses (*setto*), and of the line (*misura*), they did, as we do now the rule of three, with great ease; by which rule all the problems in navigation are

easily resolved. It is well known that by the rule of three we extract the roots (*case*), and find the sines of the angles. This then was the reason why the Venetians of old, described in their atlas's the above-mentioned figure, whose theory is founded on the second proposition of the sixth book of Euclid, which it was impossible could be unknown to our ancestors.

Properly speaking, in this whole rule, and in these calculations, the doctrine of the radius, divided into decimals, is not immediately made use of. Here the sides of the triangles are only treated of, where it remains undetermined which shall serve as the radius; a thing which was of little consequence to the sailors, who readily resigned to the astronomers a number of names, to them totally foreign. But, as every side of a triangle may be taken for the radius of a circle, these sides divided into decimal parts, really contain the grounds of the invention hitherto attributed to Regiomontanus, who reaped the benefit of the knowledge of our ancestors, in making an easy application of it to the purposes of astronomy.

Every one knows that arithmetic is a geometry, expressed in numbers; and that without this, trigonometry would be of no use. The ancient Venetians knew that this science was equally applicable to the surface of the sea, as to that of the earth. They understood that any distance to which a ship had sailed, was to be calculated by means of trigonometry, as soon as the fluid superficies was represented on a plane, where the lines of the winds which drive the ship were exactly described. For the angles formed by the concurrence of so many lines drawn, as from the centre of a circle, and the way made being calculated with the log, furnish the data, from whence to calculate the other sides; and afterwards take a view of, along with the concatenation of triangles, every other distance already gone over or

to go over. To do all this, the elements of geometry, simply, were sufficient; a pair of compasses, a line and scale equally divided; but the operations turned out tedious and long at sea, where much time can seldom be spared for study. They however thought of a remedy; which was to find out the unknown sides of a triangle by dint of simple arithmetic. The thought was natural, since by means of extracting the roots, which is obtainable by the rule of three, they easily found all the sides corresponding with the eight angles formed by the eight quarters, or rhombs of the winds, which we call *sines*.

And in order to prove how easy this invention was, we will follow, step by step, the way our ancestors must have trod to reach the wished-for point.

Ever since the time of Pythagoras, it has been known, that the square of the hypotenuse is equal to the sum of the squares of the two sides of a rectangular triangle; that the right angle is ninety degrees, and half the right angle, forty-five. In such a triangle, then, whose sides are equal the square of the hypotenuse opposite to the right angle being known, it is easy to find the two squares of the sides opposite to the half right angles, every one of which is equal to the half of the square of the greater side. From these two lesser squares, extracting the square root, the number resulting therefrom will be the measure of the lesser corresponding sides.

The following table will set the doctrine before us in a clearer light, and will shew the method of finding the eight sides required.

Deg. Minutes.	Deg. Minutes.	Deg. Minutes.	Deg. Minutes.
G. M.	G. M.	G. M.	G. M.
o. L.	o. L.	o. L.	o. L.
90 0	45 0		
Half		22 30	11 15
Complement		67 30	78 45
Half		33 45	
Complement		56 15	

The same result will be still more easily produced, if, with the line and compasses, it is sought for in the figure expressed in the chart of Bianchi; and it will be found that the numbers 20, 38, 55, 71, 83, 92, 98, 100, correspond with the *sines* of the eight quarters of the wind, or we will call them rhombi, which in the tables correspond with the numbers with the decimal fractions of the *sines* of degrees 11 $\frac{1}{2}$, 22 $\frac{1}{2}$, 33 $\frac{1}{2}$, 45, 56 $\frac{1}{2}$, 67 $\frac{1}{2}$, 78 $\frac{1}{2}$, 90, calculating the fractions which exceed the half by

units, and omitting those which are less, according to custom.

In this manner having found the *sines*, viz. one of the lesser sides of the triangle, the cosines, or *sines* of complement, result with the same ease; since from the square of the radius on the total sine taking the square of the sine found, there remains the square of the cosine, from which the square root being extracted gives the measure; being all the operations the most simple and the most easy in the theory of trigonometry.

(To be continued.)

ACCOUNT OF THE TCHOUKCHIS, A NATION OF KAMTSCHATKA;
AND SINGULAR ANECDOTES OF TWO WOMEN.

FROM LESSEP'S TRAVELS.

IN proceeding towards the camp of the Tchoukchis, I met two women, who spoke the Russian language.

As we went on, I asked them of what country they were; their language telling me, that they were neither born, nor had always lived, among these people.

One of them informed me, that she was a Russian, and had been induced to accompany the Tchoukchis from a sentiment of maternal affection. Dangers, fatigues, ill treatment, she had braved every thing, from the sole motive of reclaiming her daughter, who was retained by them as an hostage. She had lost her in the following manner:

This young woman was travelling, two years before, with her father, and a number of other Russians, upon the river Pengina. Their caravan, consisting of nine persons, was proceeding quietly along, in the midst of the Koriacs, threatened at that time by a party of Tchoukchis. To get rid of their dangerous neighbours, the Koriacs conceived the design of informing the Tchoukchis of the passage of these strangers, as a prize that ought not to escape them. The artifice succeeded. Seduced by the expectation of an immense booty in iron and tobacco, the Tchoukchis followed these travellers. Their courage could not save them, and four of them, with their arms in their hands, became the victims of a fruitless resistance. The husband of this woman was killed in defending his daughter, whom the conquerors carried off, with the three remaining companions of her misfortune. The Russians had incessantly demanded the surrender of these prisoners, and the Tchoukchis had promised to send them back; but only two of them had yet been released.

The affecting recital of this unfortunate mother, which was frequently interrupted by her tears, interested me strongly in her favour. Without knowing whether the mediation would have any weight with the Tchoukchis, I felt myself disposed to join my entreaties to hers; and I had the satisfaction to perceive that they were not nugatory.

The other woman told me that she was by birth a Tchoukchi. In her infancy she had been taken by the Russians, upon the river Anadir, and carried to Yakoutsk, where they had given her the best education in their power. She afterwards married a soldier, by whom she was, in a few years, left a widow. At length, by order of government, she was sent back to her own country, with her children, to render an account of the obligations that she owed to the Russians. It had been recommended to her to give the minutest details to the Tchoukchis, even such as lived at the greatest distance, and insinuate to them the innumerable advantages they might derive from establishing a safe and peaceable commerce with the Russians.

This woman spoke the Russian, the Yakout, and the Tchoukchi languages with equal facility. She told me, that the little knowledge she derived from her education, had gained her a sort of credit with her compatriots, that she had already taken advantage of her ascendancy over their prejudices, and she flattered herself, that by degrees, they would be taught to see their interest in its true light. Her hopes were chiefly founded upon the character of this people, which she assured me, was perfectly generous, hospitable, mild, and preferable in every respect to that of the Koriacs.

The conversation of these women had so engrossed my attention, that

I was

I was in the camp of the Tchoukchis before I perceived it. Their joy at seeing me was extreme, and I was surrounded in an instant; they all addressed themselves to me at once, to prevail on me to spend the night with them. I had no sooner answered that it was my intention, than they saluted me with new transports and huzzas. I ordered my tent to be erected at the extremity of the camp, and while it was performing, I invited the chiefs to visit me. Eager to accept my invitation, they could not wait till I had entered my tent, and I found a more numerous assembly than it could contain.

After the first compliments were over, we entered into conversation; mutually desirous of receiving information, we talked in a summary way of our respective countries, manners, and customs. They expressed their submission to Russia, their desire of forming an alliance with that country, by means of a commercial intercourse, and of seeing the establishment upon the Anadir revived. They then entered into particulars upon the motives of their journey. Their principal inducement was, to visit some relations, who had intermarried with the Russians, and settled at Ingiga. They had also, it was probable, some commercial project in view, though, from their own account, attachment to their countrymen was their only motive; and, in reality, this patriotic sentiment was visible, I thought, in their attention to one Tchoukchi woman, and the caresses they bestowed upon her children.

They frequently entreated me to banish all distrust from my mind, and to rely upon their friendship. They seemed to suppose that I partook of the reserve which the Russians discovered in their intercourse with them; but not having the same reasons to fear them, I was a stranger to suspicion. I wished them to understand this by my answer, which was, that being unwilling to offend any individual I might meet with in my way, I imagined that no one would be de-

sirous of incommoding me, particularly in the midst of a nation, whose civility and rectitude were already known to me. This mode of reasoning pleased them, and they appeared to be flattered by my security. I conceived, of course, that I ought to conceal my arms, and reject the proposal made by my soldiers, of placing a centinel before my tent.

I distributed tobacco to the most distinguished of these Tchoukchis, and afterwards treated them with tea, and rye biscuit. Their chief, or prince, named Chegouiaga, two of his relations, and the two women, who served as interpreters, supped with me. The repast was perfectly frugal, but very gay, and my guests were as well pleased as if they had fared sumptuously. The necessity of taking rest obliged us to separate.

The camp of these Tchoukchis was pitched upon the borders of the river, by the side of their equipages, and at the back of the wood which I mentioned. It contained about a dozen tents, ranged in a line along the bank. They were of a square form, and made of rein-deer skin, suspended by leathern straps to four poles, erected at the four corners. Bundles of spears and arrows, fixed in the snow before every tent, seem to guard the entrance, which is very low, and shuts hermetically. The tents are extremely hot; the partitions and covering being made of deer-skin, the air cannot penetrate, and there is, besides, a stove in the middle of each of them. The bed resembles that of the Kamtschadales when they halt, and consists of small branches of trees, spread on the snow like litter, and covered with deer-skins. Here a whole family will lie down and sleep together, without distinction of age or sex. The space is so narrow, that it is astonishing how so many people can crowd into it. The air and filthiness occasioned by it are insupportable; let it suffice to say, that they feel no disgust at seeing their food and their drink close to the most offensive objects, for no words can de-

scribe the excess of their indolence. Among these Tchoukchis, whose number amounted to about forty, there were fifteen or sixteen women, and nearly as many children, who are employed in preparing the tents and provisions. Every principal person has valets in his service, to take care of the deer, and guard them during the night from the wolves, with which these coasts abound.

The dress of the women is very remarkable. It consists of a single deer-skin, that is fastened round the neck, where it has an opening both before and behind, and which descends, in the shape of large breeches, below the knee. This garment is put on by means of the opening at the neck, and there is no other way of taking it off but by loosening the strings which tie it under the chin, when it instantly falls from the body, and leaves the woman naked. The inconvenience of this habit may easily be imagined, from the frequent necessity there must be of divesting themselves of it. When they travel, they wear a kouklanki over their common dress, and their feet have no other covering than boots made of the legs of rein-deer. Their hair is of a deep black. Sometimes it is turned up in tufts behind, but it is oftener separated upon the forehead, and hangs in long braids on each side. Their ears and their neck are loaded with ornaments of glass beads of different colours; and when they are cold, the hood of their *parque* serves them for a head-dress. Their countenance is by no means agreeable; the features are coarse, though their nose is not flat, nor their eyes sunk in their head, like the Kamtschadales. They resemble them in these respects less than they do the Koriac women; they are also taller, but not slender. The thickness and bulk of their dress, give them an appearance the very opposite to alert. In the mean time they perform the most laborious offices, such as lighting fire, cutting wood, fetching water, and other things

required in their domestic economy. These cares devolve principally upon the oldest.

The features of the men seemed to be more regular, and not at all Asiatic. Their complexion, like that of the women, is very tawny; and their dress, their sledges, and, in short, all their customs, are exactly similar to those of the wandering Koriacs. I shall take an opportunity of describing them together.

These Tchoukchis at present, go every year to Ingiga. They leave their country in the beginning of autumn, and do not arrive at this settlement till March. As soon as their business is transacted, which only requires a few days, they set out upon their return, that they may not lose the advantage of travelling in sledges; but they seldom reach their home till the latter end of June.

The merchandise they take with them, consists chiefly of sable and fox-skin *parques*, and morse teeth, which afford a very fine ivory. They receive in exchange, kettles, tobacco, lances, musquets, knives, and other iron instruments. As yet, they are little accustomed to the musquet, and scarcely make any use of it, but they are very expert in shooting an arrow, and managing a lance, which are, therefore, their principal arms.

Like all the northern people, they have an astonishing propensity to drunkenness. Their love of brandy is so extreme, that if you once let them taste it, you must repeat your kindness, till they are perfectly intoxicated, or they would consider themselves as insulted, and probably have recourse to menaces and violence, to obtain their ends. As incessant smokers as the Koriacs, they have the same pipes, and the same method of using them.

Being unwilling to prolong my stay, I went as soon as it was light, to take leave of those Tchoukchis in their tents; but the unwholesome air, and the heat, soon obliged me to withdraw. Our parting was very

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affectionate; each in his turn overwhelmed me with embraces. It may be supposed I did not fall short in my compliments, nor could I in reality too highly extol the reception of this hospitable people.

ACCOUNT OF SOME EXTRAORDINARY STRUCTURES IN THE HIGHLANDS OF SCOTLAND, &c.

(Continued from page 275.)

I Have observed, that, in the fortification on Craig-Phadrick, a large portion of the outward rampart upon the north-side bears no marks of vitrification. The reason of this it is easy to explain. In the structure of this part of the wall no wood has been employed; for the extreme steepness of the rock on this quarter, rendered any rampart for defence entirely unnecessary. A low fence of stones and turf was sufficient here to prevent the cattle, which were probably lodged between the outer and inner ramparts, from falling over the precipice. Such is that fence which at present remains on the north side of the rock of Craig-Phadrick.

It appears, therefore, highly probable, that the effect of fire upon those hill-fortifications, has been entirely accidental, or, to speak more properly, that fire has been employed, not in the construction, but towards the demolition of such buildings, and for the latter purpose, it would certainly prove much more efficacious than for the former. It is much to be doubted, whether it would be at all possible, even in the present day, by the utmost combination of labour and of skill, to surround a large space of ground, with a double rampart of stones, compacted by fire, of such height and solidity, as to serve any purpose of security or defence against a besieging enemy. Any structure of this kind must have been irregular, low, fragile, easily scaled, and quite insecure; a much weaker rampart, in short, than a simple wall of turf or wooden pallisades. The vestiges yet remaining,

as I have already observed, give no room to suppose, that the vitrified mound has ever been much more entire than it is at present. The effect of fire upon structures reared in the manner I have supposed them to have been, will account most perfectly for their present appearance.

It was from necessity that the builders of those fortifications betook themselves to a mode of structure so liable to be destroyed by fire. In those parts where stones could be easily quarried, of such size and form as to rear a rampart by themselves, of sufficient strength and solidity, there was no occasion to employ wood or turf in its construction, and it was therefore proof against all assault by fire. Such are the ramparts which appear on the hills of Dun-Jardel, Dun-Evan, and many others, on which there is not the smallest appearance of vitrification. But on Craig-Phadrick, and the other hills above described, where, from the nature of the rock, the stones could be procured only in irregular, and generally small fragments, it was necessary to employ some such mode of construction as I have supposed; and these ramparts, though solid, and well calculated for defence against every attack by force or stratagem, were not proof against the assault by fire.

But those ancient fortifications present a much more curious and more interesting object of speculation, than those uncertain, and, indeed, fruitless conjectures, as to the mode in which they have been reared. It is evident that, were it possible to ascertain the era in which those fortifications

cations were constructed, some useful light might be thrown upon the ancient history of this country, and the condition of society in those remote periods. This I shall now attempt: and, in the course of a short disquisition upon that subject, shall have occasion to mark the progress of

architecture in Britain, from its first introduction into the southern parts, till it had attained to considerable perfection, and the knowledge of the art of building had extended itself, in some degree, to the remotest quarters of the island.

(This subject will be pursued in our next.)

O P T I C A L R E M A R K S.

Rem. 1st. **G**OLDSMITH, in his History of Animated Nature, thus speaks concerning the vision of fishes. "The crystalline humour, which, in quadrupedes is flat, and of the shape of a button mould, in fishes is as round as a pea, and sometimes oblong like an egg. From this it appears, that fishes are extremely near sighted, and that, even in the water, they can see objects at a very small distance."

An angler could have informed this naturalist, that a fish enjoys a remarkable quickness of vision; and that it requires the closest concealment to be obscured from their sight, and the greatest art to disguise the hook. But, as some men are not satisfied with knowing things are so, without being told why they are so, who will not admit a fact, without an argument to support it; I shall attempt to prove that this extreme convexity in the crystalline humour, is of the utmost service towards distinct vision in fishes.

Light, on being transmitted from one medium into another, either more dense or more rare, is refracted; if their density be equal, it proceeds without refraction.

Let us now observe the situation of fishes.—They are placed in an element the specific gravity of which equals that of the aqueous humour; a ray therefore undergoes no refraction in the first humour, as it passes from one medium into another, neither more dense or more rare. The specific gravity of the vitreous humour little exceeds that of the

aqueous: thus the whole refractive power in the eye of a fish lies in the crystalline. Had the crystalline been less spherical, and of no higher convexity than a button mould, it would have been incapable of uniting the rays in a focus on the retina; for the refractive power of a lens, is in proportion to its density. Goldsmith did not consider, that as the light is not refracted by the aqueous humour, it is necessary for the deficiency in that humour to be counter-balanced, by a more than commonly refractive power in another.

As long as a diver sits within his machine, he discerns surrounding objects, and those beneath him, with the usual clearness. If he quits the bell, his sight instantly becomes confused. It is usual to remedy this inconvenience, by putting on a pair of convex glasses. Hence it is evident, that when the medium contiguous to the eye, is of equal density with the aqueous humour, that humour ceases to be refractive, and that this defect must be obviated either by the application of some refracting medium, or by a more than common convexity in the crystalline.

Rem. 2d. The following is an extract from Mr. Adams's Essay on Vision. "In elderly people it is still smaller" (speaking of the pupil) "than in adults, and has but little motion: hence it is that those, who begin to want spectacles, are obliged to hold the candle between the eye and the paper they read, that the strong light of the candle

"candle may force their rigid pupils into such a state of contraction, as will enable them to see distinctly."

This solution is vaguely expressed, though the essay in general is ingenious.

When age diminishes the refractive ability of the visual humours, an attempt is always made to amend the deficiency by increasing the distance between the eye and the object, so that none but the least divergent rays may be admitted. If the radiating point be likewise distant, the object will be faintly illuminated: a considerable enlargement of the pupil is then required for the admission of a due quantity of light. A young eye easily adapts itself to this situation; but Time, among his other depredations on men, robs them likewise of this faculty, and they are obliged to place the light before the object. It is now requisite for the pupil to be contracted, to exclude the adventitious rays. This, in elderly persons, is effected without an exertion, the conformation of the aperture in their eye being perfectly adapted to this situation of the light, as their pupil is

always in a state of contraction. Thus when, by the proximity of a radiating point, the light is reflected from the surface of the object to the eye in too great an abundance, the pupil, in elderly people, is sufficiently large for admitting a due quantity; whilst from its contracted state, all those rays are excluded, which serve only to obliterate the image.

To explain the whole in a few words—When the candle is placed behind the paper, which an elderly man reads, or at a distance from it, his pupil is incapable of dilating sufficiently to collect the scattered rays. When the candle is advanced before the object and the light too abundantly reflected towards the eye, the aperture is sufficiently large for the admission of those rays, which contribute towards the formation of the image on the retina, whilst naturally contracted, (*not forced into that state by the strong light of the candle*) it excludes all those that are extraneous.

The above may possibly be Mr. Adams's meaning, but I think, it requires some elucidation.

March 11.

J. S. K.

A GENERAL VIEW OF SIBERIA, AND THE INHABITANTS.

BY M. PATRIN.

A Desire to become acquainted with the northern part of Asia, and to bring home useful knowledge, and interesting productions, has induced me to reside eight years, amidst all the rigour of those severe climates, and to study nature in the vicinity of the pole.

This vast country, to us so little known, offers to our view some curious objects in plants and minerals. To these I principally directed my researches, and had the happiness to bring home some collections highly valuable. These are materials proper for extending our knowledge in natural history. But before I enter into any

detail respecting them, it may be proper to give a general notion of the country, and its inhabitants.

Siberia, which is subject to the Russian empire, is separated from it by a long chain of mountains, which extend north and south for near five hundred leagues. The Russians emphatically call it The Girdle of the Earth. It is the natural limit between Europe and Asia. Towards the south it is bounded by an immense cluster of mountains, extending from west to east as far as the frontiers of China; north and east by the frozen sea, and the straight which separates it from America.

This

This vast tract is traversed from south to north, by many of the largest rivers in the world. It may be divided into four parts; of the westernmost, the greater part is covered by forests, marshes, and deserts, the neighbourhood of the rivers only are capable of cultivation. On these, Tobolsk, the capital, and other towns, are built. This part, which extends to the river Yenissei, occupies about six hundred leagues.

The second part from Yenissei to the lake Baikal, is about three hundred leagues. This country is much variegated, and intersected by hills, which join the southern chain of mountains. Here we find productions different from those of Europe; here is the capital of Eastern Siberia, near the lake Baikal, which is about one hundred leagues long, and seventy-five wide.

Eastward of Baikal is a country in which are a multitude of hills of lava, the cavities of which are filled with chalcedones. The volcanos which have formed, must have been very ancient, as every vestige of the craters have disappeared. I have, indeed, seen some craters, but of little consequence, and too recent to have been the causes of those convulsions which have overturned this part of the globe. This part extends about five hundred leagues eastward to the Gulf of Kamtschatka, and southward to two rivers, which form the great river Amour. The rest of this country is subject to China.

Kamtschatka is the fourth division, and the eastern part of the old continent. It is a mountainous country, and has still some volcanos burning; it also possesses, perhaps, the finest sea-port in the world.

The inhabitants of this country, as dismal as it is extensive, in which the frost continues for nine months in the year, are not numerous. In a space of fifteen hundred leagues long, and six hundred leagues broad, they scarcely amount to 1,200,000 souls, which consists of Russians and hords of Tartars.

As to the Russians, there appears a most singular uniformity. In the extremity of Siberia, the human race, appear precisely the same as at Moscow, the same language, the same kind of cloathing, and the houses on the same plan.

The physical constitution of the Russians is well known; they are the most robust and vigorous people on the earth. The Russian women are not elegantly made, but their faces are of a beautiful carnation; their language, the sound of their voices, and all their manner, has such a bewitching softness, and are so strongly attractive, that few men can be near them with indifference. To a Russian it is impossible; for though born in a frozen climate, their constitutions are extremely hot. The electric fluid which abounds so much towards the poles, produces the same effect on them, as the rays of the sun do in the tropical climates.

The Russian women, who are extremely fond of dress, although their education is rather strict, know how to use the advantages nature has given them; they are scarcely out of their infancy, before they are able, by the price of their charms, to satisfy their vanity; and the luxury of their cloathing, among the inferior class, would astonish, if we were not able to judge by what means they procure them.

All their cloathing is of silk or cotton, of the most brilliant colours, never of woollen or cotton, although Russia has those commodities in great plenty. These remarks will apply also to Siberia, except for a very few who inhabit the most retired villages. In some of these, I have beheld innocent pictures of the golden age. Man, in a state of nature, is generally virtuous, and he becomes more corrupt in proportion as the society he lives in are more or less numerous.

The Russians speak French, and many foreign languages, with astonishing facility. Their tongue, which we should believe to be equally rude as their climate, is, on the contrary, soft

soft, flexible, and one of the finest existing. The diminutives which abound in it, give it an infinite grace in the mouths of the women. Its mechanism is much like the Greek, and is so easy, that few languages are learned in shorter time.

The language of the Tartars is, on the contrary, of a most disgusting nature. These people are dispersed in tribes through Siberia, and live under the protection of Russia; part of those which inhabit the frontiers of Europe, are Mahomedans, and apply themselves to agriculture and commerce; their language is a dialect of the Arabic; those which inhabit the eastern part of Siberia, are *nomades*, or wandering, and live in tents; they speak the Mogul language, and are idolaters.

The Mahomedan Tartars, who inhabit the Russian villages, live in quarters by themselves, which are always the best built and most agreeable. They appear to enjoy easy circumstances. They give tea and other refreshments in vessels of silver.

During my residence in Siberia, I had an opportunity to see a great many of these Tartars, and found many of them remarkably honest.

All the hords of Tartars have great resemblance to each other. The religion of the wandering Tartars appears to be idolatry, but they acknowledge a Supreme Being. They have a Delai Lama, who is sovereign and pontiff of a large state on the frontiers of China. Their priests, whom they call lamas, are men better informed than they are generally thought to be.

On the tops of hills, in the deserts inhabited by these Tartars, I have seen places for prayer, a kind of temple, of the simplest structure; they are in the shape of cones, about thirty feet high, formed from young trees, brought from the neighbouring forests, hung round with the skins of animals. These are offerings to the Deity, whom they emphatically call the GREAT BEING. Wherever I saw these religious monuments, I observed that there extended from the

cone for several toises each way, four heaps of stones, directed to the four cardinal points of the compass. This was not the effect of chance. I observed many of them, with a compass in my hand, and found them very correct.

I once asked a lama the meaning of this. "Does not the Great Being," said he, "breathe on us from the four points of the compass, and ought not we to answer him each way by our prayers? Look at these stones, they are written on." I admired the sublimity of the idea, and observed some characters on the stones.

Among these people adultery is very rare, and is punished in a singular manner; the guilty person is carried into the middle of a forest, and left there, with a bow and some arrows, but no horse, and is left to his destiny. A Tartar, used to be on horseback from his cradle, knows not how to walk; none of these unfortunate beings were ever known to appear again.

Notwithstanding the severity of their manners, no people are more hospitable than the Tartars. Wherever I went I was received like a friend. I was fond of living in their tents, as I there breathed an air of liberty. The haste these people make to receive strangers, arises partly from a natural curiosity. At night, when I have employed myself in arranging my collections of plants, I have observed the family ranged round me, in profound silence, attentive to the plants. I asked them what they thought? They told me, they perceived I was preparing offerings to the GREAT BEING. The notes I wrote and fastened to the different species, confirmed them in this; they thought they were prayers. When I endeavoured to undeceive them, they would scarcely believe me.

The wandering life of these people is proper for hunting, it forms one of their principal occupations; but they do not much quit the plains. They cannot climb the mountains, where the finest fables are to be found. The exiles in Siberia were formerly employed in hunting this animal; but they have lately become scarce, and these

these unfortunate wretches are employed in the mines. Some few free Russians, actuated by a hope of gain, alone employ themselves in these huntings; the occupation is truly frightful.

Furnished with a sack of meal, some salt, a kettle to dress his meat, and two long snow shoes and a

musket, the hunter sets off in the midst of winter, at which time the fur is the finest. Thus equipped, he goes for three months into the most frightful and retired solitude, crosses rocks and precipices, passing the night in huts of snow, and exposed all day to the rigour of a most piercing cold.

ACCOUNT OF THE PROCESSIONS IN THE HOLY WEEK AT BARCELONA.

FROM TOWNSEND'S TRAVELS.

ON Wednesday the 12th of April I arrived, and the next morning early I visited the churches, to see the preparations they had made for the entertainment of the evening, in which they were to represent the last sufferings of the Redeemer. In every church I found two images, as large as life, distinguished from the rest as being stationary, and the more immediate objects of their devotion; the one representing Christ as taken from the cross, the other, the Virgin in all her best attire, pierced by seven swords, and leaning over the recumbent body of her son. Behind these images, a theatre with colonades, supporting a multitude of wax tapers, dazzled the sight, whilst the ear was charmed by the harmonious chaunting of the choir.

More than a hundred thousand persons all the morning crowded the streets, hurrying from church to church to express the warmth of their zeal, and the fervor of their devotion, by bowing themselves in each, and kissing the feet of the most revered image. Most of the spectators were natives of the city, but many, upon such occasions, resort to Barcelona from the adjacent villages, and from some distant provinces.

Towards the close of the day, the pageant appeared, moving with slow and solemn pace along the streets, and conducted with the most perfect regularity. The last supper of Christ

with his disciples, the treachery of Judas, attended by the priests, together with the guards, the flagellation, the crucifixion, the taking from the cross, the anointing of the body, and the burial; with every transaction of the closing scene, and the events subsequent to the passion of our Lord, were represented by images, large as life, placed in proper order, on lofty stages, many of which were elegant, and all as highly ornamented as carving and gilding, rich silks, brocades, and velvets, with curious embroidery, all executed by their most skilful artists, could render them. No expence was spared either in the materials, the workmanship, or the wax-lights, which, with the most splendid profusion, were consumed upon this occasion. Each of these stages was supported on the shoulders of six men, who were completely hid by a covering of black velvet hanging round the margin of the stage, and reaching nearly to the ground. This procession was preceded by Roman centurions clothed in their proper armour, and the soldiers of the garrison brought up the rear. The intermediate space was occupied by the groups of images above described, attended by eight hundred burgeses, clothed in black buckram, with flowing trains, each carrying a flambeau in his hand. Besides these, one hundred and four-score penitents engaged my more

par-

particular attention; like the former, they carried each a flambeau, but their dress was singular, somewhat resembling that of the blue-coat boys of Christ's hospital, in London; being a jacket and coat in one, reaching to their heels, made of dark brown shalloon, with a bonnet on their head, like what is called a fool's cap, being a cone covering the head and face completely, and having holes for the eyes. The design of this peculiar form is, to conceal the penitents, and to spare their blushes. These were followed by twenty others, who, either from remorse of conscience, or having been guilty of more atrocious crimes, or for hire, or with the most benevolent intention of adding to the common fund of merit for the service of the church, walked in the procession, bare footed, dragging heavy chains, and bearing large crosses on their shoulders. Their penance was severe; but, for their comfort, they had assigned to them the post of honour; for immediately after them followed the sacred corpse, placed in a glass coffin, and attended by twenty-five priests, dressed in their richest robes. Near the body, a well chosen band with hautboys, clarinets, French horns, and flutes, played the softest and most solemn music. This part of the procession wanted nothing to heighten the effect. I am persuaded that every one who had a soul for harmony, felt the starting tear.

In the processions of the present day practices which had crept in when chivalry prevailed, with all its wild conceits, practices inconsistent with sound morals, and offensive to humanity, are no longer to be seen. The civil magistrate, interposing his authority, has forbidden, under the severest penalties, abominations which, as the genuine offspring of vice, could not have ventured to appear, even in the darkest ages, unless in the disguise, and under the sanction of religion. The adulterer, if he will court the affections of his mistress, is no longer permitted publicly to avow his

passion, to scourge himself in her presence, and by the severity of his sufferings to excite her pity, must now seek the shade, and if he feels himself inclined to use the discipline, it must be where no human eye can see him. In these ages of superior knowledge and refinement, men look back with wonder at the strangely inconsistent conduct of their progenitors. When ignorant of every thing but arms, they embraced and carried with them a religion whose influence they never felt, and the purity of whose precepts they did not understand. It was not in Spain only that superstition reared her throne, all Europe acknowledged her dominion; and in every nation in which the victorious banner of the Goths and Vandals was displayed, we have seen execrable vices cherished in the same breast which appeared to glow with fervid zeal for the glory of God, at least, as far as could be testified by the most strict attention to the ceremonials of religion. All Europe is emerging from this state of Gothic ignorance, and Spain, although the last, it is to be hoped, will not be the least enlightened.

When the pageant was over, the people retired quietly to their habitations; and although more than one hundred thousand persons had been assembled to view this spectacle, no accident of any kind was heard of.

The day following, before eight in the morning, another procession of the same kind, but more elegant than the former, was conducted through the streets, and in the evening, a third, at which assisted all the nobles of Barcelona, each attended by two servants, and in rotation carrying a crucifix as large as the life, and so heavy, that no one, for any length of time, could sustain the weight of it. The stages and the images were not the same which had been exhibited the preceding day, but represented all the same events. Every stage was completely occupied by images large as life, and surrounded by a border of open carved work superbly gilt; and the bearers, as in former

instances, were hid by curtains of black velvet, richly embroidered.—Two hundred penitents in grey attended as before. In each of these processions were many children, some not more than three years old, carrying little crosses, with each a flambeau in his hand. These are used in all processions, even in the middle of the day. The different stages, with their groups of figures, belong to different bodies corporate, either of the nobles or artificers, and are ranged in the processions according to their right of precedence. These groups are called the mystery of the corporation. That of the French artificers is an *ecce homo*; but for some reason, the consular walks before it, attended only by the meanest subjects of this nation.

The succeeding day, at nine o'clock in the morning, when, as being Saturday, I had no expectation of such an event, the resurrection was announced by bells ringing, drums beating,

cannons firing, people shouting, colours flying, and, in a moment, all the signs of mourning were succeeded by tokens of the most frantic joy.

The processions were intermitted for several years, having been prohibited by government, on account of abuses, as all who have passed the Carnival in Italy have seen. But after the inhabitants of Barcelona, in the year 1774, had resisted the demands of government, requiring them to draft every fifth man for the army, like the other cities and provinces of Spain, the carnival was forbid, and the trade, which had been always brisk at this season, felt a loss, which made the citizens call loudly for the restoration of their processions. After Easter they have one upon a smaller scale; about seventy priests, each with a lighted flambeau in his hand, preceded by a herald, with his banner, carry the host, under a canopy of crimson velvet, to those who had not been well enough to receive it in the churches.

JOURNEY FROM NEW ORLEANS TO MEXICO, PART OF A TOUR
ROUND THE WORLD, BY PAGES, CAPTAIN IN THE FRENCH
NAVY, KNIGHT OF THE ORDER OF ST. LOUIS, AND CORRESPONDENT
OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

[Continued from Page 280.]

Route by the cities of Charcas, San Louis, Potosi, San Miguel el Grande, and San Juan del Rio, from the city of Sartilla to New Mexico; and my residence there.

WE departed from Sartilla to New Mexico the 10th of February. We had no longer occasion to carry victuals with us, and had now good bread to eat. For three days we passed through a populous country; but the next three days we found only a barren soil, and the dust as corrosive as lime. There is no other water to be procured in this place, but from wells, which are very deep, and which are only to be met with every seven or eight leagues. A hut is built for the people who keep it, and who are the

only inhabitants. After having travelled over this little desert, and two days over meadows, we arrived at a mine called Charcas, where a pretty little city is raised, larger than Sartilla, and better built and peopled.

My travelling companion, the old governor of Tegas, fell sick here. I was unwilling to delay my journey, and as the road was frequented, I had thoughts of leaving him; he seemed afflicted at my quitting him, but I was obliged to go, having received advice of the arrival of the Manilla galleon at Acapulco, from which place I was still two hundred and fifty leagues distant. The month of February was already half expired, and this vessel was to sail about the end of March.

My health had continued pretty well

well since I left San Antonio and Sarrilla, except a rheumatic pain in my knee, which I cured by exercise and a cataplasm of mint, bruised, and fried with the fat of a he-goat. I also felt a weakness in my stomach, occasioned by eating the flour of Indian corn, and a quantity of Indian corn roasted or boiled.

I proceeded to a village named Venau, inhabited entirely by Indians, and governed by their own chief. They had just executed twelve persons, who had headed a body of revoltors; their heads were fixed on stakes, on the spots where their houses had stood, which were pulled down, and all their families sent into exile. This custom of exiling, is much in use among the Spaniards, and seems to me a very wise one; for it appears, that many persons would become rebels if they could find means to support their revolt, but remain peaceable subjects when they are deprived of such means. By mixing with faithful subjects, they catch their manners, and are content to follow their example. Opportunity or despair are the causes of many crimes, but a society with honest, laborious, and charitable people, prevents any fatal consequences. A knowledge of the world will inform us, that few crimes would be committed, if mankind were all placed in a happy climate and favourable soil, whose produce would repay their labours. The infancy of our colonies affords a proof of this; although the time elapsed since their first establishment, has produced some difference; for I found their manners much purer at Louisiana than at the Philippines; at Saint Domingo than in Mexico. I do not mean to reflect on the origin of the Creoles of Louisiana and the Philippine islands; yet the necessity of establishing the first colony, obliged them to accept of people of all kinds, and the Philippines were places of exile for the bad subjects of Mexico, and had also received many of the same complexion from Spain. I have however seen at Manilla, officers, rich merchants,

and persons of every station, who had arrived there in irons, but who afterwards led a very regular life, although the incentives to vice are very powerful. The Spaniards at Venau had been severe in punishing the most seditious; they were all beheaded. Policy, and a necessary example, might, perhaps, require it; but the goodness of their hearts would not permit them to go further, and they contented themselves with exiling the rest. I must here remark, that the Indian population is either very rapid, or that the relations we have heard of the massacre of the Mexicans have been much exaggerated. I have myself seen the immense number of Indians that people this country, and the ease with which they live, although in subordination to their conquerors. In many places, the tribute is raised, and the police executed by their own chiefs, and the laws of the Spanish monarch tend rather to make them patriotic subjects, than unhappy slaves. Many among them are admitted to employments in the church, in the administration of justice, and in the army. They make alliances with the Spaniards, particularly in the great cities, and at Manilla. It is only at a distance from the cities, where the pride of some low vagabonds inspires them with the idea of being conquerors, that the Indians are ill treated. There, the little connection the two nations have with each other, infuses into them that superiority and distance with which all nations, particularly the Spaniards, behold others. The Indians look on themselves as the weakest, they are, therefore, submissive to the Spaniards; and policy makes those accidental characters of the two nations equally useful to the state.

The Spaniard I had hired for a servant, appeared to me from the first to be a rascal. While I was in company with the governor, and a number of fellow-travellers, I did not fear any thing from him; but when we were alone together, I began to mistrust him. Happily he had no arms,

and

and I always carried a cutlass in my girdle. Hitherto my horses and mules had not cost me any thing for feeding, being watched during the night by my companions. But I did not think it prudent to put the same confidence in him, for fear he should carry them off, and leave me to finish my journey on foot.

I found houses to rest at every night, where I purchased provisions for my mules. I made my servant sleep in the house, and slept myself at the foot of the stake to which I tied my cattle; for in this country they have no stables. By this means also I was better assured how they were fed, and could pay more attention to them. It is remarkable how uneasy they were at being tied while they were feeding. For three days they subsisted on a few cut herbs, and I could not make them eat grain but by force, and after it had been steeped in water. The first night they were tied up, their limbs were so benumbed, that they stood motionless. By help of some strokes of the whip, and by pulling them, they began to curver, and to drag their hind legs after them; but their blood warming by degrees by the strokes of the whip and exercise, they regained the use of their legs.

The day after I arrived at San Louis Potosi, where are the celebrated mines of gold and silver, particularly those of Sierro San Pedro. San Louis is a pretty village, of a middling size, and well-built, the streets strait and handsome; it is well peopled, and surrounded with fine gardens. Here are some handsome churches, the inhabitants are rich, and enjoy all the conveniences of life.

The Indians throughout this province appeared very discontented; they had lately been loaded with new taxes, were offended with the expulsion of the Jesuits, and the yoke of the Spaniards, which they bear with reluctance. They had been roused by some vindictive chiefs, whom the governor had formerly punished. All these grievances had raised the people

of this province as far as Venau to a sort of sedition, which, but for the promptitude and severity made use of to quiet it, might have been attended with bad consequences, as there were twenty Indians to one Spaniard.

They breed very fine horses in this province, one of which I bought; they also rear many cows, all for the consumption of Mexico. Their method of taking them is singular. The cows wander about in the fields, and when the natives want to take one, they hunt them. When they have overtaken them, they take the opportunity, when they fall on their forefeet in a gallop, to seize their tail, and pull it on one side. by this means they lose their poise, and fall on their noses, and the tail is passed forward between the thighs. This attitude acts on the animal in such a manner, that they remain in the same situation for days, and until the number the hunter wants to take, are secured; he then releases them. I left to the westward the provinces of Guadalupe and Zacatecas. In these are some considerable mines. There are many others south-west of San Louis: this country is full both of concealed riches and concealed poverty; for the Creoles spend as easy as they acquire.

I remained two days at San Louis; and then proceeding, passed through countries variegated by hills, with many Indian villages, and well cultivated with grain, particularly Indian corn. A sack of the latter is not worth more than a crown. The space between Charcas and San Louis is nearly the same as this, for population and cultivation. The Indians among whom I always lodged, were plain and hospitable. Good health, and the enjoyments of an innocent and quiet life, are the rewards of their sobriety and industry. They are free from luxury or pride, and are clothed simply, some like the Spaniards, and others retain their native dress. The men wear breeches and a short shirt, which descends to their girdle, both of goat-skins. Others, instead

of this dress, wear a kind of cape, the sides sewed together at the bottom. The women wear round their waists a piece of stuff, which hangs down to their mid-legs, and a like cape over their shoulders; their hair floats in tresses down their back in different manners; their heads are always uncovered. The men wear a hat in the Spanish taste.

Besides the Alcaldes, who are a kind of Consuls, in whom is invested certain portions both of the civil and

military power, the commandants of the provinces, the different courts of justice, the bishops, the chapters, and the monks, all form very powerful bodies. They all possess very fine estates, and the whole country is divided into seigniories, or lordships, most of them with titles. These have all fine castles, large revenues, and extensive domains. Every thing announces their luxury and grandeur, which are equal to that of our greatest nobles.

(To be continued.)

ON THE CHARACTER OF THE ENGLISH.

BY MR. WENDEBORN.

[Continued from Page 196.]

IT is said of the inhabitants of England, that they are much addicted to melancholy and gloominess, and I believe there is some truth in this. They seem, however, to be friends to pleasure, though every one creates his own, according to his fancy and his whims. They have a proverb, "A short life and a merry one," which many, to their detriment, put into practice. No people on earth have, upon the whole, more reason to be satisfied with their lot than the English: but, *fortunatos si sua bona norint!* thousands of them do not know it, or are not inclined to believe it. Many ramble over the whole globe in pursuit of happiness and ease of mind; but they are soon convinced, when they are remote from their own island, that they had better have staid at home, to enjoy there what they in vain sought for in foreign countries.

I have seen, however, many English who are really happy, and seem to be conscious of it; but their number, I presume, is not very great. Most of the inhabitants of this island might be contented mortals, if they were not so extravagant in their desires, and too indulgent in gratifying their passions, which too often have

acquired a complete ascendancy over reason.

In some English companies as much cheerfulness and hilarity may be seen as in those of any other nation; and, to my great satisfaction, I have found that they are free from stiff formality, low wit, and that spirit of disputation and wrangling which in companies of other countries too much prevails. In societies of inferior classes, and their conversations, more good sense, properly expressed, may sometimes be heard, than in those among people in other countries, who think themselves of no small consequence.

It now-and-then happens, in English companies, that, after much conversation and pleasantries, a sudden pause is made for some minutes, during which, they look at one another with serious attention. They know that this is peculiar to them, and call, therefore, this short silence an *English conversation*.

An Englishman, in conversation, is far from being so lively, noisy, and insinuating, as some other nations are; yet I think his behaviour is, in the eye of reason and good sense, the most to be approved, and the most pleasing. If he talks but little, he will

will often say more to the purpose in ten words than others in an hundred: if he assures me, with a few words, and a squeeze by the hand, that he is my friend, I may rely on this simple assurance more than on twenty protestations and numberless unmeaning compliments. An Englishman, when he comes to some maturity of years, and has received a tolerably good education, generally has thought more, and acted with more freedom, than is customary among people of the same age in other countries.

It is said of the English, that they think for themselves; and I believe nobody who is acquainted with them will dispute this: there are, indeed, people enough here too who let others think instead of themselves; but they are, comparatively speaking, not so numerous as in other nations. Some, no doubt, follow implicitly the maxims of the court, and adopt its creed without examination, because they live by court-favour; but I am persuaded that but few of them are either so ignorant, or so obstinate, as to believe that the manner in which they talk and act is just and right, unless they have been educated in the most rigid Tory principles.

The common plain man thinks and reasons frequently on things relating to moral duties, equity, and those which influence the happiness of life, as justly as some in other countries, who, on account of their rank and education, think themselves learned and wise, for this very reason, that prejudice which rests itself on pretended authority, is not so common in England, except it be in matters of religion, or when a man in his profession, as an artist, or a mechanic, has once, by some means, acquired fame; in which case, even his very indifferent productions will be thought valuable, merely because he has obtained a name. The respect paid to people of rank, or to such who occupy high offices in church or state, is not carried so far in England as it is elsewhere: every one seems to know that those who on account of

their station, or employment in life, wear a rich, or a singular dress, are and remain but men. It excites, therefore, no extraordinary surprize if they commit crimes, and are punished for them according to law.

Whether active industry be a characteristic of the nation, may be doubted; in Holland they seem to be more bustling in their trading towns; but, perhaps, they are so only in appearance. Those who must, and who have a mind to work, do it with spirit and assiduity; but the majority, I believe, are inclined to live in ease and indolence. No people are more fond of holidays than their workmen and apprentices. Perhaps they would sooner admit of despotic laws than be deprived of their stated seasons for idleness, drunkenness, and debauchery.

To this prevalent inclination to get rich as soon as possible, and to lead an indolent life, I greatly ascribe that spirit of gaming, which is more predominant, and exerts itself more powerfully among the English than among any other nation. Hence that madness which takes possession of the London populace during the time when the annual state-lotteries are drawn: hence the success of those numerous advertisements of lotteries and insurance-offices, though it is well known that many of them take advantage of the credulous, and make them repent of their folly in trusting them: hence the tricks which are daily played to raise or to lower the public funds. And where is there any people so fond of frequent and oftentimes high betting, not seldom about extreme trifles, as the English? "What will you lay?" is the first question frequently asked by high and low, when the smallest dispute arises on subjects of little consequence.

An extreme degree of curiosity and great credulity are likewise said to be traits of the English character; and, perhaps, not without foundation. It is very true, that in other countries enough of a similar nature is to be met

met with also; but I believe it is more striking among the English, because they are, in other respects, remarkable for superiority of good sense. The Abbè Du Bos asserts, that the love of novelty, disquietude, and audacity, have, for centuries together, marked the English character. As to the two first qualities, I think the Abbè might, with more propriety, have fixed them upon his own countrymen; though I believe that their love for novelty, their changeableness and inconstancy, arises more from their fickleness, volatility, and vanity, than from an uneasy and discontented mind, which is generally the case with the English. The contentment and happiness of a Frenchman suffers, therefore, little or nothing by such a disposition; but the reverse is the case of an Englishman.

In no country do poverty and old age seem to be considered as greater evils than here. To be young and poor is, perhaps, not so much minded, because there is a possibility of becoming rich; but old age, though accompanied with sufficient fortune, is, notwithstanding, too often neglected. With us, in Germany, the appellations of *ein alter Mann*, an old man, *ein Greis*, a grey head, and in France, *un Viellard*, carry something venerable along with them; but this is not the case in England, where an old man and an old woman are expressions that seem to imply something disgusting, and are almost synonymous with those of old fellow, old square-toes, or old witch; words that are more significantly and more frequently pronounced with an air of contempt than denominations of the same kind, now-and-then used in other languages.

After all these observations on the character of Englishmen, it might, perhaps, be expected that I should say something upon that of the other sex. I shall endeavour to be as impartial as possible. The English laws are, in many respects, very favourable to women. Nobility among

them is acquired either by birth or marriage, or royal creation. Titles and estates, when the male line is extinct, will sometimes devolve to the female. Marriage places them, except in the case of the wives of bishops, in the same rank with their husbands.

As a married woman is looked upon as the property of her husband, it makes him answerable for her actions. According to the English law, the wife has no will of her own. It is very true that such a position is contradicted, too frequently, by daily experience, and that in England, perhaps, in eight families out of ten, the will is fallen to the lot of the wife, when the husband has left but little or none of his own; it might be, therefore, supposed that this doctrine of the law is one of those that are supported by faith, and not by sight.

Among the privileges of a married woman is this, that her husband must pay her debts, though contracted without his knowledge. As long as he is alive, the wife cannot be imprisoned, on account of debts, but her husband may. I know of instances where widows have married men who before the wedding knew nothing of the debts of their spouses, and were obliged either to pay them or to go, soon after the marriage rites were performed, to gaol, to save their new help-mates from confinement: for this reason, advertisements are frequently seen in the news-papers, by which husbands caution the public not to trust their wives with goods or money, because they are resolved not to pay their debts; yet it will happen that the good-natured husband is obliged to do it, notwithstanding the public notice he has given.

Another privilege is, that if a woman, very soon after the wedding, should be brought-to-bed, the child is, according to law, legitimate, though the husband disclaims the title of father to it, and the public thinks him to be in the right.

[To be continued.]

REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

FOREIGN.

TRAITE COMPLET DES ABEILLES, &c. or a Complete Treatise on Bees, as practised in Syra, an Island of the Archipelago; preceded by a Summary Account of that Island. By the Abbé Della Rocca, Vicar-General of Syra. Vol. I. with plates. Paris. 1790.

THE island of Syra or Syros is in the centre of the Cyclades, near Delos. It has a safe port, and is about thirty-six miles in circumference. It produces corn, wine and cattle, and has a pure air. By these advantages it was distinguished by Homer, who speaks of it with praise, (Odyssey l. 15.) At present it has about 4000 inhabitants, who are Roman Catholics, converted by missions of capuchins sent from France, to which country they have always shewn a strong attachment. This attachment has drawn on them many injuries from pirates and schismatics.

The account of the island of Syra begins by giving a general idea of the islands of the Archipelago.

In all these islands the winter season is unknown, and frost is a kind of prodigy; yet the heats are not incommodious for the greater part of the year; the northerly winds cool the air, and the sea contributes greatly to temperate the ardour of the sun. By this temperature of climate the trees enjoy a perpetual verdure, and some or other of them are constantly in flower. The people are healthy and robust, unacquainted with the gout or gravel; the plague also, which desolates Constantinople and other parts of the Levant, does not appear in these islands, unless brought here.

Almost all these islands, both large and small, had anciently their kings and tyrants. Afterwards they were formed into republics, and fell under the dominion of Alexander, from whence they passed under the yoke of the Romans, and the Constantinopolitan Empires, and lastly fell under the dominion of the Turks.

After giving a general view of these islands, our author passes to the

particular account of the island of Syra, and treats of the history, government, religion, character, language, agriculture and commerce thereof.

Our author next proceeds to his treatise on bees. He has examined those of many other authors, as Ducarne, Lagrenée, Duchet, &c. all of which appear to him insufficient.

Bonet, in his inquiries into the nature of bees, reports the researches of many learned men, particularly the famous discovery of Mr. Schinach on the production of the queen bee, which Mr. Della Rocca proposes to refute.

Bees, Mr. Langrenée says, increase so fast, that it is surprising the country people do not attend more to them, and that the governments of Europe do not excite the people to breed them; for it is certain they form the wealth of many countries, and that France formerly reaped great advantages from them.

A single hive of bees will in a middling year yield thirty or forty pounds of honey, and two or three pounds of wax; in good years fifty or sixty pounds, and wax in proportion, reckoning one pound of wax to fifteen pounds of honey. Corsica used to supply the Romans with 200,000 pounds of wax a year.

He shews us in a subsequent chapter what advantages the island of Cuba, and other places reap from them. The reason why they are so little attended to in France, and other countries of Europe, is, that their hives are defective, either in the manner of their construction, or in their form and disposition. Mr. Della Rocca afterwards proposes methods to restore the breed of them, by curing the mortality among them occasioned by vermin, or by the proprietors in gathering the honey and wax.

The question of most importance in the government of bees, is, to know whether it is best to destroy the bees

of

of a certain number of hives, to gain the honey and wax, or to gain their produce without destroying them.

All the moderns, Mr. Lagrenée says, are of the former opinion; but he is much in favour of the latter. Our author, however, proves that the method of taking the hives without destroying the bees is the best; and thinks that until a country is fully supplied with bees, government ought to prohibit the destruction of them; that necessity alone can justify the destruction of such bees as they cannot support, and that in general this excess of bees may be employed to strengthen those hives which are weak.

HISTOIRE CRITIQUE DE LA NOBLESSE; or, a Critical History of the Nobility from the Beginning of the French Monarchy to the present Time. In which it is proved, that they have been the Bane of Liberty, Reason, and Human Knowledge, and constant Enemies both to King and People. By J. A. Delaure.

THAT power is only supported by opinion, is a fact that cannot be controverted. Hence, when a contest arises, the people have little to fear from the monarch. This observation has been fully verified in the late revolution in France; but in that country, and all the states of Europe, where the feudal law has prevailed, a body of men have arisen, distinguished by the title of nobles, who are become numerous, and having still more numerous dependants, and having likewise an interest separate from the people, are much to be dreaded by them. The opposition to the revolution in France has arisen principally from this body of men; we cannot, therefore, wonder that every endeavour has been used by the friends of their country, to bring down the consequence of these people, and which is the professed intention of the work now before us.

Distinctions, says our author, ought always to be the recompense of merit, and belongs to those only who have rendered themselves worthy of it. Hereditary nobility can only be permitted either through ignorance or contempt of this incontestible principle, and is a violation of the privileges of the country, and the source of an infinity of evils.—It is necessary, therefore, to second the useful reform which has just been made, by impressing the utility of it on the minds of men, to shew them the abomination of this their idol, that they may cease to adore it.

The first chapter has for its object the usurpations of the nobles under the first and second races; in this he details the treasons, assassinations, and other crimes of this order of men, which is, our author says, sufficiently exhibited by Gregory of Tours, and strikes the reader with horror.

The usurpation of the domains of the crown was a source of other enormities. Birth was at first the only consideration. Soon after another impure source of nobility arose, and the man who could purchase an estate acquired it.

Under the second race of kings, the same errors gave rise to the same usurpations. Charlemagne somewhat checked their habitual insolence. Towards the end of this race of monarchs, the invasion of the Normans afforded them an opportunity to make greater usurpations; and at the beginning of the third race, the nobles abandoned themselves to every kind of plunder. Liberty, property, humanity, were not held sacred by them, nor did they pay any regard even to sacred things.

Such is the picture given by Mr. Delaure, and we are sorry to add, that he is supported in his account by historical facts. Many of these usurpations, by custom have been sanctioned as law.

It would be endless to select the proofs the author brings to support his assertions. We shall, therefore, hasten to give the substance of what he calls his recapitulation and conclusion.

We have seen, says he, that the French nobility owe their origin and power only to successive usurpations. We have seen the wicked inclinations of the princes and

nobles under the first and second races. We have seen the nobles under the third race incessantly employed in plunder, and sometimes in murders, and equally, in war or peace, desolating the kingdom. We have proved that the monarchy has never been shaken but by the nobles, who have destroyed agriculture, commerce, industry and liberty.

From this we may conclude, that to be a noble is a disgrace; for if the nobles attribute to themselves the right to inherit

the glory of their ancestors, it is but just they should also inherit their shame. If they regard nobility as a property, a real right, we may reply, that it is injurious, and therefore ought to cease.

If, says our author, the reading of this work inspires any one with indignation against the nobles, I declare it is not my intention; and that it is not individual, but the order only which ought to be hated.

BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

A JOURNEY THROUGH SPAIN, IN THE YEARS 1786 and 1787. *With particular Attention to the Arts, Manufactures, Commerce, Population, Taxes, and Revenue of that Country; and Remarks in passing through a Part of France.* By Joseph Townsend, Rector of Pewsey, Wilts. 3 vol. 8vo.

(Continued from Page 298.)

MR. Townsend, leaving Cadiz, proceeded to Malaga; the vineyards of which, and the environs of that place, he gives a very agreeable account of; thence journeying to Granada. Here one of the first things which drew our traveller's attention, was the Achambra, or ancient palace of the Moorish sovereigns. Of this he says,

As long as I continued in Granada, I seldom passed a day without returning to contemplate an edifice so perfectly different in its style of architecture from every thing I had seen before.

You enter first into an oblong court of a hundred and fifty feet by ninety, with a basin of water in the midst, of one hundred feet in length, encompassed by a flower-border. At each end is a colonnade. From hence you pass into the court of the lions, so called because the fountain in the middle is supported by thirteen lions. It is adorned with a colonnade of one hundred and forty marble pillars. Of this I made a drawing, but had I previously seen the beautiful representation of it by Mr. Swinburn, I should have saved myself that trouble: yet as we have given different points of view, my labour, I trust, will not be lost. The royal bedchamber has two alcoves adorned with columns, and a fountain between them in the middle of the room. Adjoining to this are two hot

baths. The great hall is about forty feet square, and sixty in height, with eight windows and two doors, all in deep recesses. Between this and the oblong court, is a gallery of ninety feet by sixteen. All these lower apartments have fountains, and are paved either with tiles or marble in checkers. The idea of the ceilings is evidently taken from *Salactitis*, or drop stones found in the roofs of natural caverns. The ornaments of the friezes are arabesque, and perfectly accord with the Arabic inscriptions, which are here suited to the purpose for which each apartment was designed. Thus, for instance, over the entrance to the hall of judgment, is the following sentence:

Enter, fear not, seek justice, and justice thou shalt find.

A handsome stair-case leads you to a suit of apartments intended for the winter.

The *alhambra* has a jurisdiction peculiar to itself, with an *alcalde*, *alguazil*, *escribano*, prison, gibbet, and a *cuchillo* for the purpose of decapitation.

The account he gives here of the silk manufactures, and conjectures respecting the formation of nitre, are ingenious.

From Carthagena he passed through Murcia, viewed Alicante, Valencia, and returned to Barcelona, where he ends his journey.

It is not possible for us to follow our pleasing traveller through his whole journey with that precision we could wish, and can only gratify our readers with a few extracts, to enable them to judge of this truly valuable work.

Of the manufactures and produce of Carthagena, he gives us the following account:

The

The most important production of this country, and the most valuable article of commerce is barilla, a species of pot-ash, procured by burning a great variety of plants almost peculiar to this coast, such as *saxa, algazul, suzon, sayones, salicornia*, with *barilla*. It is used for making soap, for bleaching, and for glass.

All the nations of Europe, by the combustion of various vegetable substances, make some kind of pot ash; but the superior excellence of the barilla has hitherto secured the preference. The country producing it is about sixty leagues in length, and eight in breadth, on the borders of the Mediterranean.

The quantity exported annually from Spain is about a hundred and fifty thousand quintals, paying a duty of seventeen reals per quintal, consequently producing a revenue of twenty-five thousand five hundred pounds a year; yet, as we are informed by Don Bernardo de Ulloa, A. D. 1740, this article was farmed at six million two hundred and sixty thousand four hundred and twelve maravedis, that is £. 1,872. 4s. 3d. Were it not for this oppressive tax, the quantity exported might be much increased, because the French, who formerly frequented the Spanish markets for barilla, are now supplied from Sicily, where, next to Spain, the best may be procured.

Carthage is indebted principally to M. Macdonell for this article of commerce; at least to him must be attributed the flourishing condition to which it has been brought, because, previous to his establishment in this city, little of it was produced in the vicinity, and none was transported from a distance.

All the herbs already mentioned, as yielding the pot-ash, are indigenous, and may be collected in a swamp called *Almojar*, to the eastward of the city. Of the *foza* I found two species, the one called *blanca*, the other *fina*. These are both good, yet not equal in quality to the *sayones* and *barilla*.

The chief imports are bale goods and bicalao; the latter directly from Newfoundland, under the duty of thirty reals the quintal, or about six shillings the hundred weight. Of bale goods, muslins and cottons are prohibited; yet as many are now brought in as when the ports were open to them, government suffering thereby in the revenue, and the people paying double the former price for these commodities.

In my excursions round the city, I took notice that the extensive valley to the north, and to the east, is beautifully varied in its form, every where either rising into little tumuli or sinking into bottoms; and although not enriched by any rivers, yet, from a few scattered norias, it is evident,

that even the highest land might be plentifully watered. The soil is loomy, composed of calcareous matter, sand, and clay, from the dissolution of the adjacent mountains, which are of schistous rock covered with limestone.

They use oxen for draught; but in tillage they employ mules and asses, with the plough last described.

Their course of husbandry is wheat, barley, and fallow. For wheat they break up their land in September, and, after three ploughings, the seed is put into the ground about the middle of November or the beginning of December. In July they reap from ten to a hundred for one, in proportion to the wetness of the season. For barley they move the earth once or twice, as opportunity permits, sowing their land generally in September, but always after the first rain subsequent to the wheat harvest, and receive from thirty to forty fanegas of grain on a fanega of land, or, in other words, from fifteen to twenty for one upon their seed, because a fanega is that quantity of good land, on which they sow one fanega of wheat or two of barley.

A fanega of corn is here three thousand three hundred and twelve solid inches, and weighs a quintal, that is, one hundred pounds Spanish, or one hundred and two pounds and three quarters avoirdupois; and among the merchants five fanegas and a quarter are reckoned equal to eight Winchester bushels of two thousand one hundred and seventy-eight solid inches; but upon a rough calculation, two fanegas of grain may be reckoned equal to three bushels, and one fanega of land may be considered as three quarters of an acre.

For their fallow crop they often sow barilla, and get from ten to twelve quintals on a fanega; but if, for want of rain, they are disappointed in the proper season for wheat, they sow that land likewise with barilla; and supposing the market price to be forty reals the quintal, it is found more profitable than a good crop of wheat. The average price is considerably higher; but as the commodity rises and falls between wide extremes, it is sometimes sold for twenty, and at other times for a hundred and twenty reals the quintal.

They grind all their corn by windmills. I counted thirty near the city; and water is so scarce, that M. Macdonell pays thirteen pounds a year only for the carriage of it.

The trees most common in the valley are, elms, poplars, olives, figs, pomegranates, mulberries, apricots, palms, palmitos, and the ginjolerio. This last bears a little fruit resembling, both in size and form, the olive, but with a smaller

smaller kernel, and remarkable for sweetness. The leaf is something like the ash, but of a darker green, with a shining surface.

The palmitos (*Chamærops humilis*) grow about two feet high, with leaves on a long stem spreading like a fan. They bear good dates in clusters, and the root is excellent, resembling the artichoke. Between each coat is a fine texture of fibres, like network, commonly used instead of hemp for charging and for cleaning guns.

I have remarked already, that the rock is schist covered with limestone; but in some places we find the silicious grit or sand stone, with shingle or smooth gravel and sea-shells; and at no great distance from the city is a mountain, from whence they obtain the gypsum used for plaster. The whole country abounds with saltpetre.

We have also the following account of Valencia and its university.

The situation of Valencia is delightful, and the country around it is a perfect garden, watered by the Guadalaviar, on the banks of which the city stands. It is divided into fourteen parishes, including the cathedral, and is said to contain a hundred thousand souls. On the average of two years, A. D. 1782 and 1786, the marriages were six hundred and eighty-one; the births, two thousand six hundred; the burials, two thousand five hundred and twenty-five. The city is evidently flourishing; and, were we to judge by the returns to government, we should be inclined to think the progress, in respect of population, since the commencement of the present century, had been rapid. In the whole province, A. D. 1718, when the equivalent was settled, they reckoned sixty-three thousand seven hundred and seventy families, and two hundred and fifty-five thousand souls. A. D. 1761, these amounted, when numbered for the quintas, or levies for the army, to one hundred and fifty-one thousand one hundred and twenty-eight families, and six hundred and four thousand six hundred and twelve souls. A. D. 1768, Count d'Aranda obtained an account from the bishops of one hundred and seventy-nine thousand two hundred and twenty-one families, and seven hundred and sixteen thousand eight hundred and eighty-six souls; and now, by the last returns, we may calculate them at one hundred and ninety-two thousand nine hundred and seventy families, because we find seven hundred and seventy-one thousand eight hundred and eighty-one souls. In this province they reckon only four persons to one vecino or master of a family.

In a city like Valencia we naturally expect to see many convents: they are indeed

numerous, being no fewer than forty-four, nearly divided between the monks and nuns. Beside these, we find ten churches, belonging to congregations, colleges, and hospitals.

The streets are narrow, crooked, and not paved; yet they are clean; and therefore healthy.

The principal buildings are, the cathedral, the convents, and the university; of which the former, without comparison, is the most worthy of attention. It is of Grecian architecture; light, elegant, and highly finished, more especially in the dome, and in six of the larger chapels. Altogether I never saw a more pleasing structure.

Near to the entrance, the first chapel to the right, opposite to the high altar, is dedicated to S. Sebastian. This contains a good picture of the saint, by Pedro Orrente of Murcia. Next to this, when you have passed the entrance to the chapel-house, is the chapel of the communion, within cupola and three altars. Similar to this are the chapels of S. Francis of Borja, of S. Paqual, and of S. Thomas. The former of these is elegantly fitted up by the coats of Penafiel, who, as dukes of Gandia, owes peculiar reverence to S. Francis, once the lord of Gandia, and now its patron. The cross iles have each four altars, and massive marble pillars. Behind the great altar, eight little chapels, decorated with marble columns, contribute much to the beauty of this edifice. To the north, the church is fitted up in much the same manner as we described it in the south; and round the choir, in twelve recesses, are twelve altars, making altogether fifty-four altars, at most of which incense is daily offered.

The great altar, thirty feet high by eighteen wide, is silver; and the image of the Blessed Virgin, six feet high, is of the same precious metal: the workmanship of both is admirable. On the altar, in eight several compartments, are represented, in bold relief, as many sacred subjects, executed by the best masters who lived at the close of the fifteenth century. These are protected by folding doors, of greater value for their paintings than the altar itself for the silver it contains. The subjects are twelve; six on the outside, and as many on the inside, the production of Francis Neapoli, and of Paul Aregio.

In the sacristy, I saw a massive sepulchre of silver gilt, designed for the reception of the host on Good Friday; a magnificent throne and canopy of silver, for Easter Sunday; and, of the same metal, two custodians, one with Corinthian columns, and images of the two patron saints; the other, twelve feet high, with a gold border, innumerable gems, and a little

little image of S. Michael the archangel, composed entirely of brilliants. This was added to the treasures of the church in the year 1452.

All the best pictures are disposed of in the sacristy and chapter-house. Those by the canon Victoria, and by Vergara, are excellent; but the most beautiful, and little inferior to Raphael's, are many by Juanes; more especially his Holy Family, in the chapter-house, and his *Eccle Homo*, in a chapel of that name.

Among the relics, those held in the highest estimation are, many thorns of the Redeemer's crown; the curious cup in which he drank at his last supper; and a wretched picture of the Blessed Virgin, painted by S. Luke.

The revenues of this church are considerable. The archbishop has one hundred and sixty thousand pesos, or twenty-four thousand pounds a year; seven dignitaries have each from eight to fourteen hundred pesos; twenty-six canons, ten lecturers, a master of ceremonies, chantors, assistants, &c. to the number of three hundred, are all well provided for.

Whenever the nation shall be reduced to the necessity of doing as the French have done, what amazing wealth, now stagnating and useless, will, by circulation, become productive!

After satisfying my curiosity in the cathedral, with the edifice, the treasures, and, above all with the paintings, I ascended the tower to take a view of the city and of the surrounding country. The prospect is extensive, and highly interesting. You look down upon a vale plentifully watered, wooded, and well cultivated, adorned with a rich variety of orchards and of corn-fields; yet, from the numerous habitations, appearing like one continued village. To the east, you see this valley open to the sea, but bounded in every other direction by distant mountains.

In the convents I found some good pictures, more especially in the following: in the two Carmelites, the Capuchins, the Dominicans, Franciscans, Augustines, the convent allotted to the nuns of Jerusalem, and the congregation of S. Philip Neri. In these, the artists whose works are most worthy to be admired are, Jacinto de Espinosa, Juan Bautista Juanes, Francisco Ribalta, Don Joseph Ramirez, Vicente Victoria, a disciple of Carlo Maratti, with many others, all natives of Valencia. In the church of San Juan de Mercado, the roof is painted in fresco by Palomino, who was likewise of Valencia. The famous Supper of Ribalta is in the college of Corpus Christi.

This seminary is worthy of attention, not merely for the pictures, which are beautiful, but for the library, which is

well chosen, considering the age in which the patriarch of Antioch lived. He finished his college in the year 1604, and all the books were collected by himself.

Among the relics in the sacristy, I took notice of a piece of sculpture, so minute, that in the size of an octavo volume it contained more than a hundred figures carved with the greatest elegance and truth.

In this college twenty-three masses are repeated daily for the dead, and for each the officiating priest receives four reals. In Spain few people of distinction die without making a provision for this purpose; but as the religious houses sometimes receive the legacy, and neglect the obligation connected with it, this proves a source of frequent litigation between the community and the friends of the deceased.

Of all the parish churches, not one, beside S. Nicholas, appeared worthy of attention. In this I admired the roof, executed in fresco, by Vidal, a disciple of Palomino, and the dome painted by Victoria. S. Thomas, of Villanueva, does credit to the pencil of Vergara. Three good pictures by Espinosa, and two by Juanes, of which one is the Last Supper, painted by that great master for the altar, must be reckoned among the finest pictures of Valencia.

The revenue of the religious houses is said to be considerable; but the most wealthy society in Valencia is the one last established; for when the convent of Montesa was destroyed by the earthquake of 1748, the monks removed their habitation, and settled here. They have lately fitted up their church with much taste, and at a considerable expence: they can well afford, because, for the maintenance of four and twenty friars, they have a nett income of nine thousand pesos, or something less than fourteen hundred pounds a year.

The university of Valencia is a respectable community. It was founded at the solicitation of S. Vincent Ferrier, A. D. 1411; and soon after its institution, D. Alonso III. of Arragon, granted the privilege of nobility to all the students who should graduate in law. It was lately much on the decline; but the present rector has raised the reputation of his seminary, and they now reckon two thousand four hundred students. When I was at Valencia, he was just returned from Madrid, with his new plan of study, approved of by his Majesty. (22d Dec. 1786.) The professors are seventy, viz. seven for the languages, including Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Arabic; four for the mathematics, comprehending arithmetic, algebra, geometry, mechanics, hydrostatics, optics, astronomy, and experimen-

tal philosophy. In philosophy, including logic, metaphysics, moral philosophy, and physics, three permanent and as many temporary professors. In this branch they take *faster Jacquier* for their guide. For medicine, with chemistry, they have eleven professors; six permanent, the other five changed at the end of three years. In this science they have adopted the best modern authors, such as *Beaumé*, *Macquer*, *Murray*, *Heister*, *Boerhaave*, *Horne*, *Van-Swieten*, and *Cullen's Practice*; but unfortunately, they have overlooked his best performance, which, without a question, is the *Synopsis Nosologiz Methodicæ*; and they appear not to be acquainted with the works of *Haller* and of *Gaubius*. Like the medical school at *Edinburgh*, they have a clinical ward, visited daily by the students, and clinical lectures given by the professors. Beside these, with singular liberality of sentiment, they permit the professors to take what bodies they think proper from the hospital, to be dissected by their surgeons.

For civil law, for canon law, and for ecclesiastical discipline, ten permanent professors are appointed, with nine assistants, who are chosen for a time, and changed in rotation every year.

Eighteen professors, of which eleven are permanent, teach theology, including ecclesiastical history, and what they call *theologia scolastico-dogmatica*.

These lectures begin the first of October, and the last of May, and are interrupted by as few holidays as the Catholic religion will admit of.

During the month of June, all the students are publicly examined in the lectures they have attended the preceding year: if approved, they receive their matriculation, and pass on to a superior class; if not approved, they continue another year in the same class, and being then found deficient, they are expelled the university. To excite their emulation, prizes of books and money are proposed, and distributed at the end of the examination, to those who have made the greatest progress in the sciences.

To graduate, if in arts, the student must, for a bachelor's degree, have obtained two matriculas, that is, he must have attended lectures two years, and must, at the public examination, have been twice approved; and to be master of arts, he must have gained three matriculas. In divinity and law, after four matriculas, he may claim his bachelor's degree; but to be doctor, he must have gained five. For the bachelor's degree in medicine, he must have attended the medical classes five years, and five times he must have passed his examinations. After this, he must practise two years in the

hospital before he can be admitted to his last degree. This certainly is an improvement on the plan pursued at *Edinburgh*, where three years study, or rather three years attendance on the lectures, and a slight examination, is all that is required for the degree of doctor. In *Valencia*, the candidate for this degree is privately examined by the professors. After this, if approved, he performs public exercises and submits to a second examination. The professors then enter the chapel, and give their votes in private. If these are favourable, they proceed to examine him once more in public, and if he acquits himself to their satisfaction, it is finally determined by vote that he shall be honoured with a degree.

The candidates for professorships form a distinct and separate class, and to be admitted into this, a man must have gained a certain number of matriculas in every science which can be useful in his line, and must pass a severe examination, both in public and in private. Thus, for instance, in medicine, to be what they call *opositor*, that is, to be admitted into the class of those who may be hereafter candidates for a vacant chair, whether permanent or temporary, he must have obtained two matriculas in Greek, two in mathematics, and one in the mechanics; he must defend a thesis, and be examined in every branch of medicine, by three censors at least, both in public and in private. After the examination, the censors, with the rector, enter the chapel, and having sworn before the altar to judge impartially, they decide by ballot whether the candidate be qualified or not. If all his exercises meet with their approbation, he is publicly received, invested with the ensigns of his order, and immediately takes his seat among the professors of the university.

From this class alone, all vacant chairs are filled; and from the *opositors* are taken the correctors of the university press. Whilst thus employed, they receive a salary. When a chair is vacant, it is filled by opposition; that is, it is given to him, among the competitors, who, upon a strict examination, is judged to be most worthy of it.

The salaries are moderate. The rector of the university has thirty pounds a year; the vice-rector, fifteen. The permanent professors have in general forty pounds a year, but the professors of chemistry receive sixty: the anatomist has fifty for salary, with ten for thirty dissections; and he who gives lectures on the practice of medicine is allowed seventy-five. The temporary professors, twenty-four in number, receive no more than fifteen pounds per annum.

This establishment being in a state of infancy, it has been thought expedient to offer premiums to the professors who excel. After twelve years unremitting application to the duties of his office, if any one shall write usefully on the science of which he is professor, he is to receive an additional pension of ten pounds; and if, after twenty years, he shall produce any valuable work, he will be entitled to an additional pension of twenty pounds: but should he compose an improved system, such as may be usefully adopted in his class, he will be entitled to a pension for life of thirty pounds a year, in addition to the former, on condition that he resigns his property in that work to the community.

The profits of the university press are designed, in the first place, to compose a fund of three thousand pounds. Of the surplus produce, sixty pounds a year is to be reserved for purchasing books, after which, the residue will be equally divided every fourth year between the rectors, professors, librarians, and correctors of the press.

Their library contains many thousand volumes, mostly modern and well chosen, all collected by D. Francisco Perez Bayer, and presented by him to this university. At his table, at Madrid, I had frequently met the rector, and was therefore happy in renewing our acquaintance at Valencia. He did me the honour to conduct me through the library, and shewed me a valuable collection of pictures in his own apartments. They are principally the works of the best masters of Italy and Florence; but among them he has some capital performances of Juanes.

The rector is a man of profound learning, and very zealous for the advancement of science in his community. For this purpose, he undertook a journey to Madrid, and to him must be ascribed all the recent regulations, with the incomparable plan of study laid down in the royal edict to which I have referred. These do much credit to his understanding, and if carried into execution, will make this seminary one of the most respectable in Europe.

Beside the library of the university, four galleries in the archbishop's palace are devoted to the same purpose, and contain thirty-two thousand volumes, among which are many modern publications in every branch of literature. The rudiments of this collection, at the expulsion of the Jesuits, about the year 1759, consisted only of their spoils; but the worthy prelates, who have been honoured with the rectorship in this city, have swelled the catalogue by the addition of not a few among the many valuable productions which

have appeared in Europe since the commencement of the present century.

Should literature revive in Spain, I am inclined to think it will be at Valencia. Men of genius are not wanting there; and whenever they shall take the pen, no press can do more justice to their works than the one established in that city. Whoever has had an opportunity of seeing a valuable work of Francis Perez Bayer, on the Hebrew-Samaritan coins, printed by Mons. Montfort, will agree with me in opinion, that no nation can boast of a superior work.

RIGHTS OF MAN. *Being an Answer to Mr. Burke's Attack on the French Revolution.* By Thomas Paine, Secretary for Foreign Affairs to Congress in the American War, and Author of the work intitled Common Sense. Jordan. 3s.

(Continued from Page 304.)

MR. Paine proceeds:—After these a race of conquerors arose, whose government, like that of William the Conqueror, was founded in power, and the sword assumed the name of a sceptre. Governments thus established, last as long as the power to support them lasts; but that they might avail themselves of every engine in their favour, they united fraud to force, and set up an idol which they called *Divine Right*, and which, in imitation of the Pope, who affects to be spiritual and temporal, and in contradiction to the Founder of the Christian religion, twisted itself afterwards into an idol of another shape, called *Church and State*. The key of St. Peter, and the key of the Treasury, became quartered on one another, and the wondering cheated multitude worshipped the invention.

When I contemplate the natural dignity of man; when I feel (for Nature has not been kind enough to me to blunt my feelings) for the honour and happiness of its character, I become irritated at the attempt to govern mankind by force and fraud, as if they were all knaves and fools, and can scarcely avoid disgust at those who are thus imposed upon.

We have now to review the governments which arise out of society, in contradistinction to those which arose out of superstition and conquest.

It has been thought a considerable advance towards establishing the principles of Freedom, to say, that government is a compact between those who govern and those who are governed; but this cannot be true, because it is putting the effect before the cause; for as man must have ex-

isted before governments existed, there necessarily was a time when governments did not exist, and consequently there could originally exist no governors to form such a compact with. The fact, therefore, must be, that the *individuals themselves*, each in his own personal and sovereign right, entered into a compact with each other to produce a government; and this is the only mode in which governments have a right to arise, and the only principle on which they have a right to exist.

To possess ourselves of a clear idea of what government is, or ought to be, we must trace it to its origin. In doing this, we shall easily discover that governments must have arisen, either out of the people, or over the people. Mr. Burke has made no distinction. He investigates nothing to its source, and therefore he confounds every thing: but he has signified his intention of undertaking at some future opportunity, a comparison between the constitutions of England and France. As he thus renders it a subject of controversy, by throwing the gauntlet, I take him up on his own ground. It is in high challenges that high truths have the right of appearing; and I accept it with the more readiness, because it affords me at the same time, an opportunity of pursuing the subject with respect to governments arising out of society.

Our author next contends, in opposition to Mr. Burke, that England has no constitution, and that the French Assembly did not form a constitution, but a convention to make a constitution. The comparison he proceeds in between the governments, is too long and too complex for us to give any extract or abridgment of, for this, we must refer our reader to the work itself. In the course of this comparison, Mr. Paine takes an opportunity to mention the abolition of titles. The fine vein of ridicule which runs through this passage, induces us to give it at large:

Titles are but nick-names, and every nick-name is a title. The thing is perfectly harmless in itself, but it marks a sort of foppery in the human character which degrades it. It renders man into the diminutive of man in things which are great, and the counterfeit of woman in things which are little. It talks about its *fine blue ribbon* like a girl, and shews its new *garter* like a child. A certain writer of some antiquity says, "When I was a child, I thought as a child; but when

"I became a man, I put away childish things."

It is, properly, from the elevated mind of France, that the folly of titles have fallen. It has out-grown the baby-clothes of count and duke, and breeched itself in manhood. France has not levelled, it has exalted. It has put down the dwarf, to set up the man. The punyism of a senseless word like *duke*, or *count*, or *earl*, has ceased to please. Even those who possessed them have disowned the gibberish, and, as they outgrew the rickets, have despised the rattle. The genuine mind of man, thirsting for its native home, society, contemns the gewgaws that separate him from it. Titles are like circles drawn by the magician's wand, to contract the sphere of man's felicity. He lives immured within the Bastille of a word, and surveys at a distance the envied life of man.

Is it, then, any wonder, that titles should fall in France? Is it not a greater wonder they should be kept up any where? What are they? What is their worth, and "what is their amount?" When we think or speak of a *judge* or a *general*, we associate with it the ideas of office and character; we think of gravity in the one, and bravery in the other; but when we use a word merely as a *title*, no ideas associate with it. Through all the vocabulary of Adam, there is not such an animal as a *duke* or a *count*; neither can we connect any certain idea to the words. Whether they mean strength or weakness, wisdom or folly, a child or a man, or the rider or the horse, is all equivocal. What respect, then, can be paid to that which describes nothing, and which means nothing? Imagination has given figure and character to centaurs, satyrs, and down to all the fairy tribe; but titles baffle even the powers of fancy, and are a chimerical non-descript.

The rights of man promulgated by the National Assembly, is inserted, and Mr. Paine reasons on it with great good sense. He concludes his pamphlet with a miscellaneous chapter, in which he answers many observations of Mr. Burke, which do not come under any of the above heads. In this he speaks of the late affair of the Regency, and sets it in a true light.

In a few words, the question on the Regency was a question on a million-year, which is appropriated to the executive department; and Mr. Pitt could not possess himself of any management of this sum, without setting up the supremacy of Parliament; and when this was accomplished,

simplified, it was indifferent who should be Regent, as he must be Regent at his own cost. Among the curiosities which this contentious debate afforded, was that of making the Great Seal into a King, the affixing of which to an act, was to be royal authority. If, therefore, Royal Authority is a Great Seal, it consequently is in itself nothing; and a good constitution would be of infinitely more value to the nation, than what the three nominal powers, as they now stand, are worth.

We shall end our extracts with the concluding paragraphs of the work.

Why are not Republics plunged into war, but because the nature of their government does not admit of an interest distinct to that of the nation? Even Holland, though an ill-constructed republic, and with a commerce extending over the world, existed nearly a century without war; and the instant the form of government was changed in France, the republican principles of peace and domestic prosperity and economy arose with the new government; and the same consequences would follow the same causes in other nations.

As war is the system of government on the old constitution, the animosity which nations reciprocally entertain, is nothing more than what the policy of their governments excite, to keep up the spirit of the system. Each government accuses the other of perfidy, intrigue, and ambition, as a means of heating the imagination of their respective nations, and incensing them to hostilities. Man is not the enemy of man, but through the medium of a false system of government. Instead, therefore, of exclaiming against the ambition of Kings, the exclamation should be directed against the principle of such governments; and instead of seeking to reform the individual, the wisdom of a nation should apply itself to reform the system.

Whether the forms and maxims of governments which are still in practice, were adapted to the condition of the world at the period they were established, is not in this case the question. The older they are, the less correspondence can they have with the present state of things. Time, and change of circumstances and opinions, have the same progressive effect in rendering modes of government obsolete, as they have upon customs and manners.—Agriculture, commerce, manufactures, and the tranquil arts, by which the prosperity of nations is best promoted, require a different system of government, and a different species of knowledge to direct

its operations, to what might have been the former condition of the world.

As it is not difficult to perceive, from the enlightened state of mankind, that hereditary governments are verging to their decline, and that revolutions on the broad basis of national sovereignty, and government by representation, are making their way in Europe, it would be an act of wisdom to anticipate their approach, and produce revolutions by reason and accommodation, rather than commit them to the issue of convulsions.

From what we now see, nothing of reform in the political world ought to be held improbable. It is an age of revolutions, in which every thing may be looked for. The intrigue of courts, by which the system of war is kept up, may provoke a confederation of nations to abolish it: and an European Congress, to patronize the progress of free government, and promote the civilization of nations with each other, is an event nearer in probability, than once were the revolutions and alliance of France and America.

OBSERVATIONS AND REMARKS
MADE DURING A VOYAGE TO
THE ISLANDS OF TENERIFFE,
AMSTERDAM, MARIA'S ISLANDS
NEAR VAN DIEMAN'S LAND,
OTAHEITE, SANDWICH ISLANDS,
OWHYHEE, THE FOX ISLANDS
ON THE N. W. COAST OF AMERICA,
AND FROM THENCE TO
CANTON, IN THE BRIG COM-
MANDED BY JOHN HENRY COX,
ESQ. By Lieut. GEO. MORTIMER,
of the Marines. 4to. Cadell.

IT is become so fashionable for a voyager to publish an account of his voyage, that we presume in a short time a city alderman will not take a trip to Margate by water, without committing the occurrences to the press; almost equally consequential are the occurrences of the voyage now before us. However, Mr. Mortimer thinks otherwise, and assures us, that the discovery he has made of the abundance of whales at the island of Amsterdam, and his intelligence concerning the mutineers who ran away with the *Bounty*, makes his voyage very advantageous.

We shall endeavour, as usual, to extract for our readers such parts as may amuse them.

Near Santa Cruz, in Teneriffe, he saw a very elegant marble obelisk, at a little distance from the pier, erected in honour of an image, called by the people of Teneriffe, Our Lady of Candelaria; which image is held in great estimation, particularly by the lower class of people, who tell many absurd stories relative to its first appearance in the island, the many miracles it has performed, &c. At the top of the obelisk is placed the statue of Our Lady of Candelaria, and at its base are four well-executed figures, representing the ancient kings or princes of Teneriffe, each of which has the shin-bone of a man's leg in his hand. On the four sides of the pedestal are the following inscriptions in Spanish, which a gentleman was so obliging as to translate for Mr. Cox :

E A S T.

At the expence and cordial devotion of Don Bartholomew Antonio Montanerz, perpetual Governor of the Royal Castle of the Strand of Candelaria, in the year of our Lord 1768, the tenth of the pontificate of our Holy Father Clement XIII. and in the ninth of the reign of our Catholic King Don Carlos III.

N O R T H.

Is erected a monument of Christian piety, for the eternal memory of the wonderful apparition of Candelaria; which holy image was adored in this island by the Gentiles, one hundred and four years old before the preaching of the gospel.

W E S T.

The regal successors of Teneriffe, crowned with flowers, bearing as majestic sceptres, the wither'd shin-bones of their fathers, revered the hidden Deity in this holy image, they saw the light of God between shades, and they invoked it in all their necessities.

S O U T H.

The Christian conquerors implored her special protection of Teneriffe; the islanders, and patron-general of all the Canaries, adore it, as the image of the Mother of God, who, for men's redemption was made man.

The following occurrence at Otaheite, will be pleasing to every English reader.

On the 15th, I accompanied the Captain on shore, to see a picture of Capt. Cook in oil-colours, left here by that celebrated navigator himself, and in the possession of

Poneow, chief of Matavai; on the back of the picture was the following inscription :

"Lieut. Bligh, of his Majesty's ship
"Bounty, anchored in Matavai Bay the
"25th of October, 1789; but, owing
"to bad weather, was obliged to sail to
"Oparree, on the 25th of December,
"where he remained until the 30th of
"March, 1789; was then ready for sea,
"with one thousand and fifteen bread-
"fruit plants on board, besides many
"other fruits, and only waited an oppor-
"tunity to get to sea; at which time this
"picture was given up. Sailed the 4th
"of April, 1789."

Though we went several times to see this picture, we could never discover where it was kept; as we were always conducted to Poneow's house, who desired us to wait there till it was brought to us. He then dispatched two of his servants for it, who used to bring it, wrapped up in a cloth; and after we had viewed it, carried it back again in the same manner. On our return from Poneow's house on the 15th, we were shewn a spot of ground where the natives told us one of the officers of the Bounty was buried. There had been an inscription to his memory on a piece of board nailed to a post; but it was taken away by Otoo, the present king, and carried to his residence at Oparree. I have been informed since I came to England, that this gentleman was the surgeon of the Bounty, and that his name was Huggan; yet it is very remarkable, that the Otaheitans could not form any nearer assimilation of sound to his name than Trono. They professed a great regard for Mr. Huggan's memory, and talked in high terms of his professional abilities, particularly in the healing art; and several of them shewed us very large scars on different parts of their bodies, the effects of dreadful ulcers, which they told us had been cured by him.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE LIFE AND WRITINGS OF THOMAS DAY, ESQ. By James Keir, Stockdale.

THIS little work, which is addressed to Mrs. Day, is a pleasing tribute of friendship. Mr. Day was a man whose mildness of disposition did not permit him to enter into the more stormy scenes of life, consequently we shall not behold those striking traits which characterize the hero and the public man; but we are here gratified with a view of the more

more amiable qualities of benevolence. Mr. Day was the son of a considerable officer in the customs, received the first rudiments of his education at the Charter-house, and from thence was removed to Oxford, where, as he did not intend to follow any profession, he did not take any degree.

Mr. Day was early convinced that virtue was the true interest of man, and he pursued it through life.

It must certainly (says our author) seem a very singular phenomenon, that a youth just entered into the age of passions, in the vigour of health and spirits, in the affluence of fortune, and in this age, should dedicate his time, thoughts, and studies, to form in his mind the principles of action, by which he was ever afterwards to regulate his conduct. And it will appear still more extraordinary, when it is known, that during his whole future life, the principles and resolutions, which he had adopted at this early age, were the invariable rule by which all his actions were governed, with an uniformity and consistency seldom maintained through different periods of life, and from which he was not diverted by the dread of ridicule, so powerful over young minds, by the impulse of passions, by the false glare of ambition, by the allurements of pleasure, nor by the assimilating manners of the age.

A trait related of young Day, when at school, deserves to be recorded.

In a boxing match between young Day and another little champion, the former discovering that his antagonist was unequal to the contest, and that he maintained it only through excess of spirit and shame of defeat, stopped the fight of his own accord, made his adversary an offer of conciliation and friendship, and praised him for the courage which he had displayed. Who does not see in this little event a cool fortitude, a humane and forgiving temper, and a magnanimity which relinquished its own triumph to spare the shame of a brave adversary?

Another anecdote is well worthy of insertion, which, although not to be made an example, marks the spirit and disposition of the youth.

Although Mr. Day never deviated from the principles which he had fixed alike in

his judgment and in his affections, it may easily be conceived that his advancing experience might alter his opinions respecting the propriety and efficacy of the means to be employed in the accomplishment of his resolutions. Thus many plausible, though somewhat romantic schemes, which had captivated his young imagination, were laid aside in his maturer years. Perhaps we may smile at the Quixotism of virtue in young Day, who, at the age of seventeen, having heard that a certain nobleman, celebrated only for having made female seduction the business of his life, had, in a late instance, abandoned one of his wretched victims to all the horrors of vice and unpitied penury, wrote a letter to his lordship, remonstrating with him on the complicated villainy and meanness of his conduct, and concluded by offering a personal challenge, unless by relieving her from want, he should give her an opportunity of flying from vice, which his cruelty had taught her was inseparable from misery. We may perhaps smile, I say, at this overflowing of virtue; but it is a glorious excess; and we may be assured, that where virtue never overflows, in youth especially, it will seldom rise to its due level.

Mr. Day very early in life shewed a turn for poetry; his address to the authoress of verses to be inscribed on Delia's tomb, is one of his early efforts. When he advanced more in life, he used to travel much, and visited many of the distant parts of England and Wales on foot, and as soon as he came of age, visited foreign parts, and continued abroad some years, and on his return had the good fortune to meet with a lady of large fortune, whom he married, and with whom he enjoyed uninterrupted happiness.

Mr. Day unfortunately lost his life by a fall from his horse; his character is thus drawn by his biographer.

In person Mr. Day was tall, strong, erect, and of a manly deportment. The expression of his countenance, though somewhat obscured by marks of the small pox, indicated the two leading features of his character, firmness and sensibility. His voice was clear, expressive, and fit for public elocution. He could be no physiognomist who did not at once perceive that Mr. Day was not a man of an ordinary character.

Perfectly

Perfectly simple in his manners, he practised none of those artificial representations of excellence, which, however well imitated and supported, being but masks, will drop off in some unguarded moment. He never shewed the smallest inclination to appear more or less wise, good or learned, or more or less any thing than he really was. On the nearest view, no carefully concealed weakness, or disguised selfishness, were ever unveiled; so that the more intimately he was known, the more consistent his character appeared; the inviolable chain of principles which regulated his conduct was more developed; and he was not only the more esteemed and loved, but what is rare and contrary to a general rule, the more also he was admired. Such is the force of genuine unassumed worth, which, like the works of nature, discloses more excellence, as it is more accurately inspected.

In conversation he was unaffected and instructive, and although the habits of his mind generally turned it to objects of importance, yet he seldom failed to mix with his arguments much wit and pleasantry, of which he possessed an abundant vein. When however his principles were contested, he entered into the subject more deeply and fully than is agreeable to the fashionable tone of conversation, which skims lightly and with indifference over the surface of all subjects and penetrates to the bottom of none. Accordingly mixed companies, such as those of busy and gay life must be, could not be much to his taste. Conversations, in which no sentiment is delivered with freedom or expressed with force, lest it should happen to press upon the character, actions, or connections of some person present, could not accord with the sincerity of his manners. But the more he confined his society within the compass of his friends, the stronger were his attachments to them. Of these attachments, his relations as a son and as a husband, being the closest, were consequently the most conspicuous. As on all occasions he regulated his conduct by the strictest regard to duty, this principle could not fail in these more important instances to produce its full effect; but here its operation was superceded by the strength of his affections. He let no opportunity pass of proving his filial piety, in one case, or of cementing the union of hearts in the other.

His works were the History of Sandford and Merton; the Dying Negro; Letter on the Slavery of the Negroes; the Desolation of America, a

poem; the Devoted Legions, a poem; Reflections on the Present State of England, and Independence of America; Dialogu: between a Justice and a Farmer; and a pamphlet on the Wool Bill; with a few others of less note.

NAVAL AND MILITARY MEMOIRS OF GREAT-BRITAIN, from the Year 1727 to the present Time. By R. Beaton, Esq. Author of the Political Index to the Histories of Great-Britain and Ireland. 6 vol. 8vo. Strachan.

(Concluded.)

IT would be doing injustice to Mr. Beaton to consider him only in the light of a collector of detached events and occurrences, and these only such as relate to our navies and armies. Though he has not assumed the title of an historian, he occupies, with very considerable distinction, the most important post in the historical province, which is, to deduce the great stream of national affairs from their causes, and in their connections, marking, at the same time, such of them as may naturally be supposed to have the greatest influence, and be the most interesting to the present generation and to futurity. Where political negotiations, intrigues, or debates, make no great figure amidst the prominent features of the year, he passes over them in a summary manner, and hastens to the great events of war at sea and land. But where politicks are of capital consequence, and the grand hinge upon which all turns, he very judiciously brings them into the foreground, and dwells on them with due copiousness and circumstantiality. For example, when he comes to 1761, he says,

The affairs of this year differ very much in their nature from any we have yet related; and the political transactions become so blended with the naval and military, that it is impossible to separate them; the former of which are indeed so very impos-

Important and interesting, that without some knowledge of them, these Memoirs would appear defective. A negotiation to bring about a peace between Great-Britain and France, the terms prescribed, the cause of its failure, the resignation of the Minister when in the plenitude of power, and a declaration of war against Spain, are the topics to which we allude.

In this enumeration of the principal objects to be described, which is an example of our author's manner, when entering on a new series of events, he shews genuine abilities as an historian; who should not creep from one little object to another, without interesting his reader by a prospectus, as it were, of his details—without rising to a height from whence he may see the summits of the hills that shape the contour of the country, and survey it as something that is a whole.

The French memorial, transmitted privately by Mr. de Bussy, proposed, in order to establish a peace upon solid foundations, not to be shaken by the contended interests of a third power, that his Catholic Majesty might be invited to guarantee the treaty between the two Crowns. It further proposed, with the consent and communication of his Catholic Majesty, the settling of the three points then in dispute between Great-Britain and Spain, and which might produce a new war in Europe or America; namely, the restitution of some ships taken in the course of the present war, under Spanish colours; the liberty claimed by the Spanish nation to fish on the Banks of Newfoundland; and the demolition of certain settlements, made contrary to treaty by the British log-wood cutters in the Bay of Honduras.

This memorial, offered by an enemy, nearly brought at our feet, met with the reception it justly merited from the British Minister, who, with a proper indignation, and in a manner of which only he himself was capable, returned it to M. Bussy, as containing matters wholly inadmissible; at the same time, assuring him, that his Britannic Majesty would not suffer France, in any manner whatever, to interfere in his disputes with Spain, nor permit a word of them to be mentioned in the present negotiation for peace; and that it would be considered as an affront, and a thing incompatible with the sincerity of the negotiation on the part of France, to make any farther mention of such a circumstance. Nor did

Mr. Pitt stop here; he immediately suspected that the Court of Versailles had obtained a promise of assistance from that of Madrid, and which had made the French so daring. He therefore required of the Spanish Minister to disavow the propositions which had been said to be made with the knowledge of his Court; expressing his astonishment at seeing a proposal for accommodating disputes between friends, coming through the medium of an enemy; and at finding points of so much consequence offered for deliberation by a French Envoy, when his Catholic Majesty had an Ambassador residing in London, from whom no intimation of such business had been received. Mr. Pitt, in the course of the negotiation, let M. Bussy know, that he would not relax in his demands, saying, "that it would be time enough to treat on those matters" when the Tower of London was taken "sword in hand." An expression which was faithfully transmitted to his Catholic Majesty at Madrid, and which the French afterwards endeavoured to make use of, in order to induce Spain to take a part in the war with them; as from the haughtiness of the British Minister, the negotiations for peace were likely to break off.

When the Earl of Bristol transmitted an account of his conference with the Spanish Minister, Mr. Pitt saw at once the part that Spain intended to take; and his conduct on this occasion was so truly great and noble, that, if he had performed no other service to his country, this alone ought to have endeared him to the whole nation. A Council was immediately held, where he delivered the sentiments of a British patriot, replete with the love of his country, and anxious for her glory and prosperity. The evasions of the Court of Spain, he said, we ought to consider as a refusal of satisfaction; and that refusal, as a declaration of war. We ought, from prudence, as well as spirit, to secure to ourselves the first blow. If any war could provide its own resources, it was a war with Spain. Her supplies lay at a distance, and, as we were already masters of the sea, these might easily be intercepted, or cut off. Her fleets, or American plate fleet, on which she had great dependence, was not yet arrived; and the taking of it would at once strengthen ourselves, and disable her. Such a bold, but necessary step, would be a lesson to his Catholic Majesty, and to all Europe, how dangerous it was to presume to dictate in the affairs of Great-Britain; and that Spain deserved this chastisement, as much from what she had already done, as from what she intended against the British nation.

The dignity and soundness of this reasoning was not to be confuted. The Council

was composed of men of very great abilities, several of whom had advised like measures, with regard to France, before war had been formally declared against that power, as those which the Minister now urged should be taken against Spain; yet, a great majority of them chose to differ in sentiment from him. The measures he recommended, they considered as violent, and contrary to the laws of nations. They agreed, that we ought not to be intimidated by the threats of any power, from asserting our just demands; but that it was impolitic to add war to war, and enemy to enemy, when the springs of government were already overstrained, and to engage in what we had not strength to support. Upon just provocation, they added, it would be cowardice to shun a war; but to court and find pretexts for one, would be madness. If Spain should be gained over by France, and take a decisive part in the war against Great-Britain, it would then be time enough to declare war; and then all Europe would be convinced that we acted with coolness and resolution. The whole kingdom would then see that we were forced, from unavoidable necessity, to adopt this measure, and would cheerfully agree to support an Administration which had acted with moderation and firmness, but who was averse to lavish away the public treasure wantonly, or employ it in prosecuting an unjust war.

The reasons they assigned were not considered by a number of people as the real motives by which they were actuated on this occasion; and some went so far as to say, that they were in fact, tired of his superiority, knowing, that while Mr. Pitt continued in the Cabinet, he would be regarded as the principal person in Administration, not only by the nation, but by all the world. The Minister was not to be persuaded, by these specious arguments, to alter his opinion. He had been able to dive into some of the most secret measures of the Courts of France and Spain; and to learn that the Sovereigns of the House of Bourbon had signed a Family Compact, which was founded on principles most hostile to the liberties of Europe, and particularly levelled against the prosperity of Great-Britain. Had Spain been chargeable with no other unfriendly designs against this country, this alone was quite sufficient to have roused the indignation of such a Minister; and, regarding the opinions he had heard delivered, as timid, short-sighted, and narrow-minded, he exclaimed with great warmth, "This is now the time for humbling the whole House of Bourbon! and if the glorious opportunity is let slip, we shall in vain look for another. Their united power, if suffered to gather strength,

"will baffle our most vigorous efforts, and possibly plunge us in the gulph of ruin. We must not allow them a moment to breathe; self-preservation bids us crush them, before they can combine or recollect themselves."

The Secretary, perceiving that the majority of the Council were not likely to be brought over to his opinion, unfortunately declared, that unless he could carry so salutary a measure, this was the last time he should sit at that Board. "For," added he, "I was called to the Administration of public affairs by the voice of the people; to them I have always considered myself as accountable for my conduct; and therefore cannot remain in a situation, which makes me responsible for measures I am no longer allowed to guide."

This last resolution of Mr. Pitt's did not induce them to change their opinions; nor did they seem to regret, that, from their obstinacy, the Crown was likely to lose the assistance of so valuable a servant. They persevered in opposing the Secretary; for, on a division, only he and his brother-in-law, Earl Temple, were for an immediate declaration of war against Spain. Since this event happened, there has elapsed time sufficient for viewing with exactness, and determining on the motives which induced the majority of the Council to deviate in opinion on so important a point from Mr. Pitt. They knew while he continued in Administration, that their political consequence would be very inconsiderable; and that the nation looked up to him alone as their guardian angel. He had indeed rescued them from despondency. Without the aid of foreign mercenaries, he had restored the nation to its wonted vigour; and, by properly exerting our natural strength, had laid an insolent foe prostrate at her feet.

A Minister must have been more or less than man, that did not feel an honest pride, in having met such support, for saving the vessel of the state when in the greatest danger, and conducting her to a sea of glory and renown; and, conscious of his own integrity and disinterestedness, Mr. Pitt could but ill brook, on this occasion, to be thwarted in his endeavours, when steering the vessel clear of a shoal, of which the crew were ignorant. His warm temper was well known to his enemies; of this they availed themselves, and adopted measures which they were sure would rid them of one, whose resplendent qualities as a Minister, had frequently rendered them, like the satellites of Jupiter, scarcely visible without the help of a telescope. He resigned the seals into his Majesty's hand, on the 5th day of October, and the King accepted them. He

was offered any honours in the power of the Crown to bestow; but these he declined. His Lady was created Baroness Chatham; and a pension of 3000l. a-year was settled on their joint lives, and the life of their son, John Pitt; for this virtuous man was far from rich.

It is fortunate for the republic of letters, when a turn for literature is found in conjunction with active habits, in important and honourable stations in life. Our author, we understand, for many years, held a respectable command in the marine service, with great reputation. Hence an accuracy and justness of description in his details, that is not to be expected in the journals and compilations of men of mere speculation. This is like an union of theory with experiment.

AN ELEGY, OCCASIONED BY THE REJECTION OF MR. WILBERFORCE'S MOTION FOR THE ABOLITION OF THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE. Hughes and Walsh, *Inster Temple-Lane.* 15.

THE author of this hasty, but spirited little performance, in his preface professes his fears "that his warmth may have led him too far; and that, in endeavouring to be just, he may have descended to ill-liberality;" and confesses that he "had very little patience, when he reflected that those lines which Horace used upon another occasion, might, with propriety, be addressed to his countrymen on the present subject:

*Te suis Matres metuunt Juvencis;
Te Senes Parci, miseræque nuper
Virgines nuptæ, tua ne retardet
Aura Maritos.*

The pertinency of which, as well as of his motto, appears sufficiently to evince the classical cultivation of his mind.

The poem itself ably describes the feelings of a susceptible heart, bleeding for the procrastinated woes of its "*Brethren of the darker die*;" and interspersing vindictive satire against

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the advocates of the Slave Trade, with fervent admiration of those "who dar'd to plead for injur'd innocence;" and softening, also, the melancholy picture of negro wretchedness, with prophetic prospects of future relief, is well calculated to interest the lovers of poetry and sensibility. The introduction of the negro clasping the knees of the British senators, and pleading the cause of his countrymen, is picturesque and animated. We subjoin part of his speech as a specimen of the performance.

"I ask not much, nor for myself I plead;
"My aged limbs are quite inur'd to
"pain;

"My parents, children, number'd with
"the dead,

"My sons were slaughter'd, and my
"partner slain!

"I plead for those who ne'er have felt
"the chain,

"Nor suffer'd tortures from the venge-
"ful scourge;

"Who never knew the smart of wanton
"pain:—

"For them the plaint, the anxious plea
"I urge.

"Let us, who long have felt Oppression's
"rod,

"Lur'd by more gentle usage, stock
"your lands;

"Be taught the saving knowledge of your
"God,

"And pay the blessing with our la-
"b'ring hands.

"But cease to drag from off their native
"shore

"The sable sons of Afric's wide de-
"main;

"Let them no more the Russian's arts de-
"plore,

"And float in charnel dungeons o'er the
"main."

We cannot take leave of this poem without expressing our hope, that the author is no false prophet, when he says, that "not distant is the joyful time," when, taught by the "forceful arguments," and "generous ardency" of the advocates for humanity,

"The nation's bosom shall determin'd
"glow,

"And one bold effort our disgrace re-
"peal."

3 D

POETRY.

P O E T R Y.

THE COMFORTS OF MARRIAGE.

A TALE.

—*Quæque ipsa miserrima vidi
Et quorum pars magna fuit.*—

VIRG.

WHEN Cinna earn'd but twenty pounds
a-year,

No dunning tradesman Cinna had to fear.
In debt to nobody, his heart was gay,
He look'd no farther than the current day;
His income just allow'd a decent coat,
An alehouse ramble cost him but a groat.
From him no barber had long bills to seek,
He clear'd with every claimant once a-week.
At night he drank small beer, and smok'd,
and read,

And slept as sober as a nun to bed.
He shunn'd the sex. His fortieth year be-
gan
Before he dar'd to feel the pleasures of a
man.

Nay, when December chill'd the world
with frost,

That month, when monks and maidens
murmur most,

When the cold sheets were freezing to his
skin,

Like Ruth, no laundress at his heels crept
in;

No drab to groping constables could tell,
That he, good man, had made her centre
swell.

His blabbing tongue no pious aunt could
fear,

On him no bawd bestow'd her wanton
leer.

At him, no cuckold bent the budding horn,
Wenching, in every shape, he held in scorn.
Surprising fast! in such a rampant age,
So pure a saint deserves a brighter page.
Alas! how very seldom have we seen
The virgin fort resist us till fifteen:

But love of change still haunts the hu-
man breast,

Thus Indolence itself grows tir'd of rest.
The sot has now and then a sober fit,
Misers, by times, extravagance admit.
The veteran may shake with childish fear,
And surgeons have been seen to shed a tear:
By turns the foolish follow Wisdom's rules,
By turns, the wise behave themselves like
fools.

Tho' Fortune rushes in her richest tide,
We sigh for some enjoyment yet untry'd;
In search of novelty our fancies tire,
Gaze at the moon, and tumble in the mire.

And thus the hero of the present song,
Having so long gone right, at last went
wrong.

His wages trebling, Cinna took a wife,
That precious balsam for the wounds of
life;

But Care was quickly painted on his brow,
He found himself in debt he knew not how;
Such heavy, daily, damnable demands,
A guinea never halted in his hands.

His salary was rais'd to twelve score
pounds,

And this, you say, magnificently found;
And swear the man must very soon be
rich,

Unless his spouse feels the true spendthrift
itch.

With nine pert puppies yelping at his
tail,

To talk of saving makes his patience
fail.

Maids, midwives, milleners, and heay's
knows what,

Keep Cinna barer than a tar's old hat.
On parish rates, tithes, laces, lodging-rent,

Tea, china, claret, half his funds are spent;
Thrice nine-and-thirty cousins have im-
plor'd

That help, his purse, they cry, can well
afford.

His precious rib has ventur'd to declare,
" 'Tis vulgar on one's legs to take the air."

In vain poor Cinna vows himself behind,
Plays, balls, and fiddlers fill my lady's
mind;

And, as no man of sense expects to see
Two females, two whole hours at once
agree,

Ten times a-day his spouse and servants
brawl,

His dear descendants every second squall;
His bed, his shirt, they sleep in midnight
streams,

Small-pox and measles, haunt his morn-
ing dreams.

Each day commences with a cloud of
bills,

For taylor, nurses, spelling-books, and
pills;

To-night more cradles he must buy or
borrow,

And a twelfth sexton's fee pay down to-
morrow.

And though, ye rakes, may think he
should rejoice,

When rid of so much trouble, cost, and
noise;

What agonies convulse a father's breast,
While innocence is writhing into rest?

Thus

Thus, to his fatal coast, hath Cinnā
 found,
 That wedlock's holy joys are just a
 sound;
 That peace will end, where happiness
 begins,
 And wives are the grand scourge of hu-
 man sins.

Not so, who look beyond this earthly
 sphere,
 Their paths more brighten'd by the
 heav'nly light;
 Who seek no recompence from honours
 here,
 Nor by distinctions human praise in-
 vite.

ODE TO SLEEP.

*Somnoque jucundo molestas
 Agri animi relevare curas.*

BUCHANAN.

O Sleep! to thy seductive charms
 My clay with gladness I resign;
 Let madmen court the din of arms,
 The rapture of repose be mine:

Let others watch the midnight sky,
 The cavern's horrid gulf descend,
 Above the clouds on smoke-bags fly,
 Or to the Pole their passage rend.

For me, 'tis just enough to read
 The terrors of the frozen sea;
 No burning wave shall drench my head,
 No starting plank shall banish thee.

No burning desert shall I range,
 No Nabob rack in quest of gold.
 Can Peace admit a fair exchange?
 Are thy embraces to be sold?

When Thou, with Innocence, art gone,
 How sad, how terrible to live!
 Domestic happiness alone
 A pure tranquillity can give.

'Tis night—our cares are thrown aside,
 Our lisping prattlers lull'd to rest;
 Through every vein I feel thee glide,
 And press my Julia to my breast.

ELEGIAC VERSES

ON THE LATE THOMAS CORBYN, ONE
 OF THE PEOPLE CALLED QUAKERS.

WRITTEN BY W. HAMILTON REID.

THE marble tomb, the proudly-sculp-
 tur'd bust
 The vain may prize, to make their
 mem'ry live:
 But can these keepers frail retain their
 trust?
 Time mingles all, unconscious of re-
 prieve.

In vain th' impassion'd verse shall tell
 their tale,
 All vanish'd o'er to cheat admiring
 eyes:
 But scan'd by Truth, their gaudiest colours
 fall,
 And but to fade, their greenest laurels
 rise.

What tho' their truth held on its humble
 way,
 Along the peaceful, calm, serene of
 life;
 Their virtues never blaz'd upon the
 day,
 In ostentation with the sons of strife?

Tho' unadorn'd, their faith in simple
 plight,
 Ne'er like a harlot us'd a false dis-
 guise;
 Redd'ning, a wrathful meteor on the
 sight,
 Nor borrow'd trappings from the world-
 ly wife!

Still, should their loss impel a gen'rous
 tear:—
 If ever Gratitude its debt confess'd;
 Or ever Virtue earn'd a tribute here,
 Or ever Justice warm'd the human
 breast:

CORBYN, departed from this world of
 woe,
 Might well demand th' panegyric
 lays:
 Might well compel the feeling source to
 flow,
 Or plead example for the warmest
 praise.

Not so he wish'd; but as some modest
 flow'r,
 Breathes its sweet fragrance on some
 lonely soil;
 He sav'd the wretched from Affliction's
 pow'r,
 And eas'd the yoke of Misery and
 toil.

As Enoch walking, it suffic'd to know,
 They felt the good, for whom it was
 design'd;
 In blessing blest; the high extatic glow
 Leaves lesser praises for each lesser
 mind.

Those feel that peace, the world can ne-
 ver give,
 And give as freely as to them is
 given;
 They hear that voice, the world will not
 receive,
 The songs of triumph, and the harps
 of Heav'n!

Pure source of Love! and principle of Truth,

In every bosom still thyself reveal;
Still bear thy witness in our rising youth;
Still let the aged all thy influence feel.

This vital spirit shall declare its source
From everlasting, yields to no decline:—

This, like the eagle, shall renew its force,
Its end Perfection, and its aid Divine.

TRANSLATION

OF THE LATIN VERSES IN THE LITERARY MAGAZINE FOR MARCH LAST.

Quid non longa dies, quid non consumitis anni?

Irrevocable Time, whose winged way
Not all the prevalence of pray'r can stay,

See thy fell ravage! see yon antique tow'rs,
Where o'er their base the crumbling marble lours,

Where thronging screech-owls shriek their evening song,
Whilst thro' each moss-grown aisle the north wind howls along.—

Once o'er this spot, where nod these gloomy fanes,
Victorious Scotland pour'd forth all her swains

In grim array; here gleam'd the thirsty sword,

Hiss'd the swift javelin, and the cannon roar'd.

Thus from a thousand caverns Ætna pours
Her glowing lavas, and her fiery show'rs;
While through the silent glooms that shade the day,

Wide o'er the trembling plains fierce lightnings blaze away.

The trumpet clang'd; and soon the purple gore

Burst in huge tides along the foaming shore;
High o'er the lofty standard, that in air floated redundant, with her laurel'd hair
Flew Conquest; here, now there, her eyes the turns,

For these, now those, her wav'ring bosom burns.

Lo! where her haggard eye-balls grimly glare,

Distracted Flight, and Fear aghast are there;

Brave youths and veterans yield alike their breath,

And bow submissive to the stroke of death.

At length the sons of Scotia glad beheld
Their dread opponents to their vigour yield;

Exulting, then, they rag'd and ravag'd round,

And tread these lofty tow'rs in ruin o'er the ground.

Now, when the setting sun's "declining light

"Yields his pale empire to the mourner "night,"

Here an assembly dire of shrouded shades,
With doleful shriekings flit along the glades;

Here croaks the bird of night; and here is seen

The fairy foot that hardly prints the green;

Here, on the lonely heath, Fear's ghastly form

Waves her umbrageous wings, and screaming, rides the storm.

The shepherd wand'ring on the mountain's height

Hears the dread sounds; and seiz'd with dire affright,

He starts convuls'd; then swifter than the wind,

Flies o'er the shadowy plain, nor calls a look behind.—

But let me raise my song; and mourn no more,

When lofty tow'rs fall mouldering o'er the shore:

E'en Nature's self, and all those orbs on high,

That roll unnumber'd thro' the cloudless sky,

Shall yield to Time; no traces shall remain

Of Hell's black regions, or the ethereal plain.

The silvery moon, with renovated light,
Shall not for ever gild the dusky night,
Nor shall the cheering sun for ever rise,
And cloath'd in garb of radiance, mount the skies.

The day will come, when bursting from its thrall,

Intestine fire shall 'whelm this fated ball;

The torn earth, while trembling angels gaze,

Shall throw around, its flames with dreadful blaze:

Oceans, that proudly fought the heav'n before,

Shall shrink, and hissing, leave the wonted shore.

While tofs'd in atoms, to the lofty skies,
This wond'rous fabrick of the world shall rise.

Virtue alone, 'midst every danger brave,
Shall 'scape the perils of the whelming grave;

At the dread, final hour, when bursts the world,

When crash seas, earth, and Heav'n's is ruin hurl'd,

To that bright region, she shall wing her way,

Where joys eternal fill th' eternal day.

W—A B—A.

PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS.

IN the House of Lords, on Friday the 18th of February, the order of the day being read for summoning the house on the petitions presented on the general election of the peers of Scotland, and it being moved that Lord Cathcart do take the chair,

Lord Radnor rose to observe, that though the noble lord's own seat might not depend on the decision of the house on the several petitions under consideration, he thought it improper that he should preside in the committee.

Lord Stormont said, that in a question of such delicacy none of the thirteen peers returned ought to vote. For his own part, he had determined to adopt that line of conduct, whatever his opinion on the merits of the different cases might be.

The Lord Chancellor disapproved of the noble viscount's resolution.—If any noble lord chose to disobey the summons of the house, that was another consideration; but he thought it a duty incumbent on every peer of parliament to support his opinion by his vote.

The question being put, Lord Cathcart took his seat as chairman, and counsel were called to the bar on the petitions of the Earl of Selkirk and the Earl of Hope-
town.

After hearing the Solicitor General, the house adjourned.

In the House of Commons a new writ was ordered to be issued for a new member to serve in parliament for Dunwich, in Suffolk, in the room of Barne Barne, Esq. who has accepted of the Chiltern Hundreds.

Mr. Loveden gave notice that he would on Monday next make a motion relative to the unclaimed dividends of the Bank, for the purpose of procuring a particular list of the persons intending to claim the present unclaimed dividends.

In the House of Lords, on Monday the 21st of February, Lord Cathcart moved, that the Lord Clerk Register of Scotland, or his deputies, be ordered to lay before the house the certificates of qualification of the Duke of Rothsay and Lord Kinnaird, together with all the oaths taken at the late election of peers to serve in parliament for Scotland.

The Lord Chancellor said, he could not see the object of this motion; he thought the house would not order the public records to be brought from so great a distance, when official copies would do just as well.

Lord Grenville said, that he thought the original papers were absolutely necessary upon this occasion, because he understood

that Lord Kinnaird, in signing the roll, had written Kinnoul instead of Kinnaird, or that it was so written as to cause a doubt which of the two names it was, and therefore no *fac simile*, or copy, could be received in evidence.

The Lord Chancellor allowed, that if the fact were so, the originals must be produced; but that ought to have been particularly stated in the petition upon which the motion was made, whereas the petition stated generally, that Lord Kinnaird had not qualified as by law required.

Lord Stormont and Lauderdale each said a few words, when Lord Cathcart consented to withdraw his motion until a more accurate petition should be presented.

In the House of Commons, the same day, Mr. Pitt moved, that there be laid before the house several accounts of surplusses in the Exchequer, and increase of the revenue and customs, since the year 1786. Ordered.

Mr. St. John moved, that there be laid before this house copies of the treaties entered into between the Mahrattas and the East India Company, and also between the Nizam and the East India Company. Ordered.

Several accounts and papers moved for by Mr. Francis were brought up, and ordered to be laid on the table.

The chairman of the committee appointed to try the merits of the Bodmin election, reported the resolution of said committee, as follows, viz. "That the petition presented against the election of the sitting members appeared to them frivolous and vexatious."

The Speaker informed the house, that the committee appointed to chuse persons to form the India judicature, had erred in their report, and, therefore, suggested the re-commitment of said report. Agreed.

Sir Charles Bunbury, without any preface, moved, "That there be laid before this house copies, or extracts, of all letters and papers received from Governor Philip, since the commencement of his government at Port Jackson, New South Wales, giving an account of the nature and fertility of the soil; of the probability of raising any, and what provisions; of the employment and behaviour of the convicts, and of the climate and its effects."

Colonel Tarleton observed, that from the best information he had been able to obtain, it gave him great reason to believe that the situation of our convicts at Botany Bay was truly wretched and deplorable, and he was afraid they would fall victims to famine. Here he read several extracts

from

from a letter received from an officer at Port Jackson. He then hoped ministry would not persist in sending more convicts to Botany Bay, when, from those extracts, the authenticity of which could not be doubted, it appeared, that instead of rearing a colony, we should dig a grave for those that were already there. The motion was agreed to.

The order of the day was read for the house to resolve itself into a committee on the bill for regulating the land forces in India.

Mr. Francis said, it was not his intention to enter into the general question of the policy or expediency of this bill; but the right hon. gentleman (Mr. Dundas) having assured the house that there was a very reasonable expectation that the war would be happily terminated, he thought it very strange that the two Hanoverian regiments should be withdrawn at this juncture, when the war actually existed. The expiration of the contract between the Elector of Hanover and the East India Company, had been stated as an objection to their continuance in India, but this he thought would not be very difficult to get over; and the contraction of the expence which had been stated as an inducement to this plan, he believed would be opposed by the great expence that would be incurred in sending those men out, who, though greater in number, would be less effective from their being raw undisciplined men, many of whom would fall victims to the climate. He therefore thought the present establishment in India would be more effective than the intended increase could be.

Mr. Dundas said, with regard to the objection of the men intended to be sent being raw and undisciplined, he must answer that they were mostly volunteers from other regiments, who had been enlisted some time; and that it was his intention to send out a great body of privates to fill the deficiencies of every regiment in India, without increasing the number of officers; and that the expence of carrying them would be greatly lessened by sending them in the ships intended for that voyage.

Mr. Fox suggested, that it was his intention to bring two questions before the house this session, but finding the circuits approached very near, whereby he should be deprived of the assistance of the gentlemen of the long robe, he could wish to be informed when they would terminate. One was with respect to the power of the court of King's Bench in judging of libels—and the other was relating to the proceedings by information, Quo Warranto.

Mr. Jebb informed him the northern circuit ended about the latter end of April.

Mr. Fox then gave notice, that on Friday, the 6th of May, he should move the house to take the first into consideration in its character of a high committee of courts of justice.—He requested to know if it was the intention of any of his majesty's ministers to give notice of the expiration of the charter granted to the East India Company.

Mr. Pitt replied, that it was his intention to give such notice during the session.

Mr. Miford rose and made a speech, setting forth the grievous nature of the various penal laws in force against subjects of the Catholic persuasion, even of such as abjured the unconstitutional doctrine of the supremacy of the Pope; and concluded with a motion, "That leave should be given to bring in a bill for the relief of Catholic Dissenters."

Mr. Stanley supported the motion, from his own personal knowledge of the principles of the members of that persecuted sect; for many of them resided in the county (Lancashire) which he represented.

Mr. Pitt conceived that there would not be the smallest objection to the motion; and that, if any difference of opinion should arise, as to the mode of granting the relief, it might be debated hereafter.

Mr. Fox said, that from what he had heard, he was pleased with what was proposed, but not satisfied. He thought that the whole body of the Catholics ought to be included. He threw out some collateral arguments in favour of Dissenters in general; and combated the idea, that certain modes of religion are adapted to certain forms of government. He instance several states of very different constitutions. In all these, so different; and some of them so opposite to each other, there was, he observed, without any danger to the state, the most unreserved toleration.

Mr. Pitt protested against any such broad system of toleration as Mr. Fox hinted, which would go to the same length with a motion which he had made in the last parliament, for a repeal of the Test and Corporation acts.

The motion passed *unanimously* *contradictorily*.

Mr. Loveden, seeing that Mr. Fox, and most of the members on his side of the house, no longer occupied their seats, expressed his wish, that he might be permitted to defer his motion respecting the unclaimed dividends, of which he had given notice, until the next day.

Mr. Pitt objected to any adjournment of the business; as, in the first place, there was enough, and of sufficient importance, for the next day; and secondly, because gentlemen must have known that this matter was to have been brought forward, and if they had any thing to say upon the subject,

subject, he presumed they would not have been so very impatient to leave the house.

After some little further conversation, Mr. Loveden's motion was withdrawn.

The House of Lords, on Tuesday the 23d of February, in a committee of privileges, proceeded to hear counsel on the petition of the Earls of Selkirk and Hopetoun, against the proxy and votes of Sir James Sinclair, bart. as Earl of Caithness, and Andrew Thomas Lord Castlewarr, as Lord Ochiltree.

In the House of Commons, the same day, in a committee on the Mutiny bill, Mr. Fox rose to complain, in the name of several of his constituents, of a grievance under which the keepers of livery stables had for some time laboured. Some time past, billets had been granted upon the keepers of private livery-stables, whose houses were as private as those of any gentleman in the house.

The Secretary at War had never heard of the abuse complained of, but agreed that a clause should be inserted in the present bill to prevent this abuse, if it did exist.

The accounts of revenue, moved for by Mr. Pitt, were laid upon the table.

Mr. Rose moved, that the Leominster election should be deferred for ten days. Agreed.

On the bill for the augmentation of the East India military force being committed,

Mr. Francis requested of the hon. mover to know whether provision was made in the above bill for the recall of the Hanoverian corps.

Mr. Dundas replied, that no such provision was made, and the detention of those corps would be discretionary with the government in India.

Bill to be reported to-morrow.

On the order of the day being moved,

Mr. Loveden rose, to make his promised motion relative to the unclaimed dividends.

Mr. Pitt contended that the house should proceed to the order of the day.

Mr. Loveden moved an adjournment of the order of the day.

The question was put, and, on a division, the numbers were,

Noes,	—	81
Ayes,	—	60

Majority against the motion 21

Mr. Loveden then gave notice, that on Friday next he would bring forward his motion.

The house resolved itself into a committee on the Corn bill.

On the clause of confiscation, a debate of some length ensued—

It was contended by Lord Sheffield, and others who opposed the clause, that it was highly impolitic and unjust to impose general penalties, when they ought to be

proportioned to the nature of the offence; he therefore proposed that the penalty should be levied in proportion to the quantity of grain illicitly shipped.

The Attorney General, and others, argued, that as the principle of confiscation was not peculiar to the Corn bill, and that it had hitherto been found advantageous to the revenue, it ought to be continued. He admitted, however, that it might be proper afterwards to bring in a general bill for mitigating the severity of the law, in proportion to the nature of the offence.

The committee divided on the amendment proposed by Lord Sheffield,

Noes	—	69
Ayes	—	54

Majority against the amendment 15

The committee then proceeded to the consideration of the other clauses.

In the House of Commons, on Wednesday the 23d of February, the order of the day being read for the report on the Offenders' bill being taken into consideration,

Mr. Powys observed, that as several gentlemen imagined that the present bill was identically the same as that presented last year; and as they had determined on this principle to give it opposition, he wished merely to state, that it had undergone several alterations and modifications in the committee, agreeably to the suggestions of those gentlemen. However, as he wished that it might have a full and ample discussion, he would move, that the further consideration should be deferred to this day fortnight. Agreed.

In the House of Lords, on Thursday the 24th of February, counsel were heard in behalf of Lords Hopetoun and Selkirk; and Lord Cathcart moved that the petition next in order be now read.

Lord Stormont contended that the house should first decide on the merits of the case before them.

The Lord Chancellor was of opinion, that it would be more natural to hear the whole of the petitions before any decision was given.

After a short conversation the further consideration was adjourned till Tuesday.

In the House of Lords, on Friday the 25th of February, Lord Grenville brought down a message from his Majesty. It intimated his Majesty's intention of new modelling the constitution of Canada, and forming a division of that province into Upper and Lower Canada—and of allotting lands to the support of Protestant Clergymen.

Ordered to be taken into consideration on Wednesday.

In the House of Commons, on Friday the 25th of February, the Chancellor of the Exchequer moved, "That the last day

day for presenting private petitions be prolonged till Monday."—Agreed to.

Mr. Fox wished to know whether the business which stood for Monday was likely to come on that day.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, it was not meant to delay any business that stood for Monday. Mr. Fox was satisfied.

Mr. Fox mentioned the Westminster petition, the hearing of which stood for Monday next—as that day was likely to be taken up by more urgent business, he had no objection to have the consideration of that petition put off till any other day. The nature of it was very well known, and he would be glad to have the opinion of some gentlemen on the other side of the house, and particularly a noble lord, before he mentioned any day.

Lord Hood said, that he had no wish for delay, and, if it was convenient for the house, could go into the question now. It was settled that the petition should be taken into consideration on Friday the 8th of April.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer brought a message from his Majesty.

The message intimated his Majesty's intention of forming a new constitution of government for the province of Canada; and the manner was, by dividing the province into Upper and Lower Canada. And that his Majesty wished to allot certain lands in that province for the support of Protestant Clergymen.

Mr. Lovelace rose to make his promised motion, "That there be laid before this house a list of those who were Proprietors of South-Sea Annuities, and other Public Funds, before the year 1780; and likewise that the Directors of the Bank of England be desired to give in to this house a list of those names which stood upon their books intitled to dividends that have not been claimed previous to 1780."

Mr. Hussey approved of the motion made by the Honourable Gentleman so far as it went to ask what the house, and what the country, was justly entitled to. However he did not think that the list to be given should conclude with the unclaimed dividends of 1780; he was aware that it might not be prudent or expedient to call for a list up to the present date, but he certainly wished to see a list up to the year 1785, and could not suppose that any objection would be made. He therefore would move an amendment to that purport. This amendment being put and seconded,

Mr. Thornton said, that the Bank had long since been ready to give the list that was now called for, but that they did not conceive they were empowered to give it out in any manner, unless they were ordered to do so by the House of Commons. He stated an objection to the

amendment, which was, that the list even up to 1780 contained above 7,500 names, which might be produced in the course of three weeks, but if it was to be carried on till 1785, he could not answer when it might be ready.

Mr. Hussey would very readily have departed from his motion if he had heard one argument against it, but that had not yet been offered. He had conferred in private with Directors, who had told him that these lists had been ready, and must be delivered as soon as the House of Commons called for them, which it was expected the House of Commons would have done long ago. He considered the nature of the present enquiry to be, that those who had money in the public funds, and who were ignorant of their title to such property, might have an opportunity of claiming it now, and choosing their creditor, if they did not withdraw it; and certainly in this view it was a just and proper enquiry. He therefore would take the sense of the house on the amendment.

The house then divided on the amendment,

Noes	—	126
Ayes	—	44

Majority 82

The Chancellor of the Exchequer moved for leave to bring in a bill for the purpose of appropriating to the public service the sum of Five Hundred Thousand Pounds of the Unclaimed Dividends, &c.

Mr. Fox stated the alarm which such a measure would communicate to the creditors of the nation; the stab which in consequence might be given to the public credit, and the danger with which it might be attended as a precedent and instrument of abuse to future ministers.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, that he did not mean to carry the measure into execution without giving full opportunity for all discussion of its consequences. By such discussion, he hoped to obviate the objections which had been suggested, and to prove that it was liable to none of those inconveniences which were apprehended.

In the House of Commons, on Monday the 28th of February, a petition from the American loyalists, praying for a further extension of time to make good their claims, was presented.

Mr. Pitt agreed to the receiving of the petition, although he would not pledge himself to support the allegations of it.

Several accounts respecting the national debt, with the interest thereon, were received, and ordered to be printed.

Mr. Pierrepont reported, that John St. Leger, Esq. and Robert Ladbroke, Esq. were duly elected for Oakhampton.

The Deputy Clerk of the Crown immediately

mediately attended, and took off the indenture.

The order of the day for the house going into a committee on the East India Company's petition to raise a certain sum of money by sale of annuities and subscription, being read, leave was given to bring in a bill pursuant to the same.

Mr. Thornton presented a petition, stating, that Robert Hunter, Esq. H. Thornton, Esq. and about one hundred merchants, had agreed and entered into a certain subscription for the purpose of carrying on a trade to the Western parts of the coast of Africa, and praying the sanction of that house to the said plan, which will tend to the great advantage of this country. The petition was referred to a committee of the whole house.

Mr. Hippeley rose, and after apologizing to the house for the repeated disappointments he had occasioned to them, by procrastinating the business he was now about to bring before them, begged that the clerk should read the 24th of George III. which being done, he then desired that the resolutions of the Court of Directors respecting the orders laid down for the Governors in India, be also read, which was accordingly agreed to. He then stated to the house, that from his long indisposition, he was unavoidably constrained to trouble an honourable friend of his (Mr. Francis) for the purpose of bringing his proposition before the house. To that gentleman he begged leave to consign the business; and he made no doubt but his abilities, and knowledge in Indian affairs, together with his experience in the manner of Indian government, would fully enable him to acquit himself of the task, although a heavy one.

Mr. Hippeley then read a number of extracts from several letters written in India since the commencement of the war between Tippoo and the Rajah of Travancore, all tending to the criminating of our government in India, for espousing the cause of the Rajah, and engaging us in an expensive war. As soon as he had finished reading these extracts,

Mr. Francis entered at length into the subject of the motion he was about to submit to the house. He first observed, that from the nature of things as going forward now in India, that that country must ultimately be a burthen on this country, instead of our looking to it for resources in time of war; and this observation he supported by several reasons. With respect to the present question, how far the Rajah of Travancore had a right to attack Tippoo Sultan, or engage with him in a war, he thought that every gentleman conversant with the journals of that house, and with the orders transmitted to the East-India Company, was

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too a good judge to speak on that subject; but he would tell the country at large, and that house in particular, that the war between Tippoo Sultan and the Rajah of Travancore, was occasioned by the conduct of the latter; and it was a war to which this country ought not to have given its support.

These assertions Mr. Francis endeavoured to support by reading a vast number of documents, government resolutions, &c. &c. He then adverted to the late treaty entered into between the East-India Company, the Nizam, and Mahrattas, which he considered as a most glaring piece of absurdity, and thought it a very useless piece of paper in the hands of the Company. Having dwelt a long time on these points, and animadverted very strongly upon each of them, he then moved "That the present war with Tippoo Sultan originated from the purchase of Tranangore, and Jachotto, by the Rajah of Travancore, from the Dutch."

This motion was followed up with a number of resolutions grounded on the same, which being seconded,

Mr. Dundas rose, and in a most able speech, refuted the arguments laid down by the honourable member who moved the question; respecting the forts of Tranangore and Jachotto, they belonged solely to the Dutch, and the Rajah of Travancore had as good a right to get a transfer of them as any other person. But the principal reason why he got them into his hand, was owing to the constant alarm he was under, of an invasion by Tippoo Sultan into his kingdom, and these forts being on the frontiers of his kingdom, he was of course the better able to protect it from the attacks of his enemies, when in possession of them.

Major Maitland spoke at some length in favour of the motion, and stated a number of circumstances respecting Indian affairs, which had come within his own knowledge.

Mr. Fox replied to Mr. Dundas, and contended, that the arguments used by his honourable friend were founded on facts—after speaking for a considerable time,

Mr. Pitt called the attention of the house, and in a most forcible and nervous speech, full of pointed remarks and political knowledge, combated the assertions made by the mover of the question and Mr. Fox. The question being then loudly called for, the motion was read by the Speaker and put, when it was negatived without a division.

The several resolutions were then put and negatived also without a division.

In a committee of privileges in the house of lords, on Tuesday March 1, the council having concluded upon the case of the petition of the Earls of Hopetoun and

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Selkirk, complaining of the votes of the Earl of Caithness and Lord Ochiltree,

The *Earl of Kinnoul* moved, that the names of James, Earl of Hopetoun, and Dunbar, Earl of Selkirk, be added to the return of the Peers duly elected to represent the Peers of Scotland in the present parliament.

This motion gave rise to an uninteresting debate on the order of proceeding; and on the question being put, it was negatived.

Lord *Loughborough* called the attention of the house to the next petition in order, of the Earl of Abercorn, complaining of his *signed list*, as a peer of Scotland, having been rejected. The learned lord observed, that as this petition, and that of a noble duke (*Queenberry*) did not immediately relate to the general merits of the election, and that it was incumbent on the house to proceed to determine who were duly elected to represent the peers of Scotland, that these two petitions ought to be postponed, till the merits of the other petitions should be discussed.

The *Lord Chancellor* said, that as the house did not mean to decide on any of the petitions till the whole were gone through, it was very immaterial which of them were heard first.

Lord *Loughborough* did not intend to make any motion on the subject; he had suggested it merely for the purpose of saving time; and undoubtedly it was right that the representation of the Scots peers should be completed as soon as possible.

Agreed that counsel should be heard on the petition of the Earl of Abercorn on Thursday.

Previous to the motion being put,

The *Earl of Kinnoul* entered into a long vindication of his conduct at the general election of the Scots peers.—The resolutions of that house, so far as they went, he conceived to be as binding on him as an act of parliament. The house had determined, that no peer of Scotland, who had been created a peer of Great Britain since the Union, had a right to vote in the election of the Scots peers, and on that ground he had declined to give his vote.

In the house of commons, on Tuesday March 1, the *Speaker* called the attention of the house to an object which was intimately connected with their health. Several plans had been proposed to him for the purpose of warming and of cooling the house; he wished that a committee might be appointed to take them into consideration.

Mr. *Martin* moved, that a committee be appointed for that purpose. Agreed.

The house resolved itself into a committee on a motion that leave be given to bring in a bill to regulate the trade between England and the provinces of America; and

leave was given to bring in a bill for that purpose.

The house resolved itself into a committee to deliberate on the motion that had been made, for leave to bring in a bill to grant relief, under certain restrictions, to Protestant Roman Catholics. Mr. *Stanley* in the chair.

Mr. *Mitford*, after a short preface, to shew that the relief which the Protestant Roman Catholics prayed for, was an indulgence that might be granted without the smallest danger to the state, moved, that leave be given to bring in a bill for the relief of the Protestant Roman Catholics.

Mr. *Fox* could not help considering the subject on a larger scale than that on which the honourable member who made the motion had thought fit to consider it. It was, and had ever been his opinion, that all tests, civil and religious, were absurd. But this had nothing to do with the present question. Toleration, religious toleration, on which this motion was founded, was admitted by all parties to be one of those natural rights of man, which no government could take away. In the strange and absurd commotion, which a few years ago had taken place, on account of the proposed repeal of the Test Act, it was, nevertheless, agreed on all hands, that religious toleration was the right of all, it was wonderful that this country should profess so much, and yet perform so little!

He contended, however, that the persecution of the Roman Catholics had never proceeded from religious intolerance, but that it had always been the consequence of political fears.

Mr. *Fox* professed, that if it should appear that his amendment would put any impediment in the way of the original motion for the relief of the Roman Catholics, he would waive it till another opportunity.

Mr. *Burke* admitted in general the truth of the principles, and of the policy laid down by his right hon. friend; but he thought it unreasonable to carry them to their full extent.

Mr. *Pitt* admitted, that the penal laws against the Roman Catholics were sanguinary and unjustifiable; but was of opinion, that there would be a better opportunity of debating the subject in a more advanced stage of the bill.

Mr. *Fox* then withdrew, for the present, his amendment; but he doubted not that the spirit of toleration, which daily gained ground in the general mind, would soon procure to every sect of men, that religious liberty, to which all had an equal right.

The question was put and carried; and Mr. *Stanley*, Mr. *Mitford*, &c. were ordered to bring in a bill for the relief of Protestant Roman Catholics, under certain restrictions.

THEATRICAL

THEATRICAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE novelties of the season, at least on account of the managers, are at an end; two pieces have, however, been produced for benefits, at Covent Garden, the first, called *Wild Oats*, or the *Strolling Gentlemen*, a comedy, was performed for the benefit of Mr. Lewis, and was extremely well received.

The following were the *Dramatis Personæ*.

Jack Rover,	Mr. Lewis.
Sir Geo. Thunder,	Mr. Quick.
Harry Thunder,	Mr. Holman.
John Dory,	Mr. Wilson.
Ephraim Smooth,	Mr. Muhden.
Sim,	Mr. Blanchard.
Banks,	Mr. Hull.
Muz,	Mr. Macready.
Gammon,	Mr. Cubitt.
Amelia,	Miss Chapman.
Janett,	Mrs. Wells.
Lady Amaranth,	Mrs. Pope.

This comedy, which comes from the fertile pen of O'Keefe, has all the extravagant pleasantry, with a smaller share of improbability, than in general distinguishes the dramatic works of this writer. The fable has also more: We shall only give its principal features.

The *Gentlemen Strollers* are Jack Rover and Harry Thunder. The latter has eloped from his father, Sir George, who dispatches his *fore-castle* valet, John Dory, in pursuit of the fugitive. He finds Rover quoting from the Rehearsal, "I am the bold *Thunder*;" and taking him in consequence for his young master, conveys him to the house of Lady Amaranth, a Quaker lady, and niece to Sir George. The young lady, who has never seen her cousin, falls in love with Rover, under that appellation. A variety of incidents are introduced, by which the benevolence and intrepidity of the latter, who is evidently the author's hero, are well illustrated. He is in the end discovered to be the son of Sir George by a former marriage, and is united, with his consent, to Lady Amaranth.

The character of Rover, whose language is formed of dramatic quotations, is taken, though with improved pleasantry, from the *Apprentice*. John Dory is the individual Pipes of Smollett, and was well marked by Wilson. The character

of Lady Amaranth has more novelty, and her formality and benevolence were admirably coloured by Mrs. Pope. The other parts were also much aided in the performance.

The second was a new comic opera, brought out as an after piece, and called the *Cave of Trophonius*, the characters of which are as fol-

Arn.	Mr. Sedgwick.
Dor.	Mr. Bannister, jun.
Amil.	Mr. Kelly.
Drom.	Mr. Suett.
Corin,	Mr. Dignum.
Trophonia,	Mr. Fox.
Daphne,	Signora Storace.
Phædra,	Mrs. Crouch.
Alanet,	Mrs. Bland.
Dorcas,	Mrs. Williams.
First Spirit,	Miss De Camp.

This piece comes from the pen of Mr. Hoare, author of the pleasing little opera called *No Song, No Supper*, and was received with great applause. It consists of a variety of whimsical incidents, which are operated by the wonderful effect occasioned by entering that cave. The story of this cave is related by Mr. Addison, in his *Spectator*, who states it as particularly described by Pausanias, as made in the form of an huge oven, and had the particular quality of disposing all persons who entered it to be more penitive and thoughtful, inasmuch that no one who had entered it was ever observed to laugh again. It became usual, therefore, when any one became more gloomy than usual, to say he looked like one come from Trophonius's cave. Mr. Hoare has made use of this incident, and has taken a theatrical license to heighten the stage effect, and has not only ascribed to it the property of changing gay to grave, but likewise its opposite of changing grave to gay. By this he has made the opera highly entertaining. By means of these metamorphoses, a variety of diverting scenes and situations ensue, till Trophonius, the author of these enchantments, dissolves the charm, and the parties are restored to their senses. The dialogue is humorous, the music does Storace great credit, and the performers supported their characters with spirit.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Madrid, March 28.

BY letters from Africa we learn, that the Governments on the coast of Barbary, such as the Dey of Algiers, and the Dey of Tunis and of Tripoli, have

engaged to assist the Grand Signior to the utmost of their powers; in consequence of which they propose to be at peace with all their enemies in the Mediterranean.

Constantinople, March 19. Jusuf Pascha,

cha, the new Grand Vizier, appears to be the person destined to re-animate the courage of the Turks, damped by so many defeats. He possesses the general esteem and confidence: the inhabitants of the Provinces, and the Asiatics in particular, are eager to enlist under him; and his master has the most favourable opinion of him; a striking proof of which he has lately experienced in the dismissal of the Musti, one of his principal adversaries, who constantly opposed his elevation to the present dignity. With such a minister therefore as Jusuf Pacha, all idea of peace and danger is now abandoned.

A. Santon (a kind of religious Mussulman) was lately impaled here, for having the audacity to prophesy, that the capital of the Ottoman Empire would, ere long, change its master.

Constantinople, March 29. The preparations for the continuation of the war are immense; troops are raising in Bulgaria and Romelia, and considerable magazines are forming at Adrianople and Schiumia; the army in that neighbourhood will consist of 200,000 men, under command of the Grand Vizier in person; a corps of 30,000 men will cover Warna, where they fear an attack from a Russian fleet almost ready to sail. The ascendancy of the new Grand Vizier is very visible; but where will the Divan find provisions for such an immense armed multitude?

The Swedish Ambassador has not yet quite lost all the favour of the Divan, notwithstanding the efforts of Prussia to represent Sweden in an unfavourable light: The Turks have an esteem for the Swedes, as the only one of their allies who have fought for them. The British Court continues to have a marked influence in the Divan; and the promises made by Great-Britain are constantly placed in the most favourable point of view by the Prussian Envoy.

The Pacha of Scutari is said to be ordered by the Sultan to advance his troops, and put himself in a state to take possession of Servia and Wallachia as soon as the Emperor's troops have quitted those provinces. This arrangement bears the appearance of peace, as that operation cannot take place till after the signing of the preliminaries.

Paris, April 28. To-morrow ten millions of assignats will be burnt, which will make in all 90 millions destroyed.

Whilst this country becomes more quiet, some of our neighbours are still in a state of anarchy: 15,000 men marched from Avignon the evening before yesterday to make a second attempt upon Carpentras; they had cannon, bombs and ammunition with them. The besieged place put itself in a state of defence. The be-

siegers, however, joined by the inhabitants of about 40 villages, appeared before a village where the people of Carpentras had opened the sluices, and in flying had set every thing on fire; thus that unfortunate country now suffers all the horrors of a civil war. The Mayor and the Vicar of Vaifon have been hung up.

EAST-INDIA INTELLIGENCE.

Calcutta, April 11, 1790. We learn that 1400 sepoy are ordered for service on the coast.—They are to be drafted from the battalions at Berhampore, Barrackpore, and Midnapore, and to be ready on the 10th proxima, for immediate embarkation.

The centre army moved, on the 18th ultimo, from their encamping ground near Arcot, and were directing their march towards the Mysore frontier; which we suppose they will enter either by the Amboor pass, which lies nearly west from Arcot, at the distance of about sixty miles, or by the Vaniambaddy pass, which is ten or twelve miles to the southward of Amboor. Both these places are on the west bank of the Palar river, and from the latter Seringapatam lies nearly west, 135 miles distant, by the route of Goolapettah, Bangalore, &c.

November 17. The preparations now going on at the Presidency, for the reinforcement to the Coast, are conducted with the utmost spirit and dispatch. The 73d regiment are ordered to be in immediate readiness, and, it is expected, they will embark in the course of a few days; the artillery and Lascars will be in readiness by the end of this month. The commander in chief with the corps of native infantry, will, it is supposed, embark about the middle of December. The Indians are all nearly ready for the reception of the troops; and a large quantity of tonnage for transporting the 1st regiment of cavalry, stores, bullocks, &c. is collecting with the utmost diligence.

AMERICAN NEWS.

Arrived a mail from New-York, last from Halifax, in 20 days, brought to Falmouth by the Portland packet, Captain Rogers.

FROM THE PHILADELPHIA FEDERAL GAZETTE.

Philadelphia, Feb. 16. The following message from the President was read in the House of Representatives of the United States last Monday.

United States, Feb. 14, 1791.

Gentlemen of the Senate and House of Representatives, Soon after I was called to the administration of the government, I found it important to come to an understanding with the Court of London, on several points interesting to the United States.

States, and particularly to know whether they were disposed to enter into arrangements, by mutual consent, which might fix the commerce between the two nations on principles of reciprocal advantage. For this purpose I authorised informal conferences with their Ministers; and from these I do not infer any disposition on their part to enter into any arrangements merely commercial. I have thought it proper to give you this information, as it might at some time have influence on matters under your consideration.

Feb. 22. The President of the United States has appointed, by and with the advice of the Senate, David Humphreys, Esq. Minister Resident from the United States to her most Faithful Majesty the Queen of Portugal.

The Legislature of North Carolina have lately passed an act to prevent any person who now does, or who may hereafter, hold any office, appointment or authority under the Federal Government, from being eligible to a seat in the General Assembly of that State, and to prevent any person from holding or exercising any office or appointment under the authority of the said State, so long as he continues to hold or exercise any office or appointment under the authority of the United States.

DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

On St. George's Day the Society of Antiquaries met at Somerset House, for the purpose of electing the Council and Officers for the year ensuing, pursuant to their charter, when the following were chosen:

Of the old Council continued. Earl of Leicester, Lord Bishop of Carlisle, Clayton Mordaunt, Esq. John Brand, M. A. Owen Salusbury Breton, Cracherode, M. A. Sir Henry Charles Englefield, Bart. Richard Gough, Esq. Anthony Hamilton, D. D. Samuel Lysons, Esq. John Topham, Esq. Thomas William Wright, A. M.

New Council. Frederic Barnard, Esq. Sir William Burrell, Bart. Samuel Denne, M. A. Richard Farmer, D. D. Christopher Hawkins, Esq. Rt Hon. Lord Loughborough, John Peachy, Esq. William Southouse, Esq. Earl of Stamford, Joseph Wyndham, Esq.

Officers. Earl of Leicester, President; John Topham, Esq. Treasurer; Richard Gough, Esq. Director; John Brand, M. A. Secretary; Tho. William Wright, M. A. Secretary.

M A R R I E D.

Right Hon. Lord Chief Baron Eyre, to Miss Mary Southwell, of Great George-street.

John Esdaile, Esq. son of Sir James Esdaile, to Miss Mary Humphreys, daughter of the late William Humphreys, Esq. of Elwyn, Montgomeryshire.

John Allen, Esq. to Miss Charlotte Cotterell.

At Dublin, R. Griffith, Esq. to Miss Winter, only daughter of Arthur Winter, Esq.

Richard Frizzel, Esq. of his Majesty's 50th regiment of foot, and son of R. Frizzel, Esq. of Rathfarnham, to Miss Eleanor Biston, daughter of Dr. William Biston, of the Royal Navy.

Thomas Monfell, Esq. to Miss Devaynes, daughter of William Devaynes, Esq. of Dover-street.

William Burlton, of Handley, in Dorsetshire, Esq. to Miss Bowles, of Shaftesbury.

Redmill, Esq. to Miss Douglas, sister to Sir Andrew Douglas, and niece to Sir Andrew Hammond.

William Taylor, Esq. of London, to Miss Van Cortlandt, daughter of Major Van Cortlandt, of Halifax, Nova-Scotia.

Dr. Smith, Prebendary of Westminster, to Miss Susannah Pettingal, daughter of the late Dr. Pettingal.

Captain Gregory, of the Prince of Wales's own light dragoons, to Miss Grote, of Upper Grosvenor-street.

Thomas Tyrwhitt Jones, of Stanley, in the county of Salop, Esq. (member for Weymouth), to Miss Harriet Williams, youngest daughter of Edward Williams, of Eaton in the said county, Esq.

Duncan Darroch, Esq. of Greenock, to Miss Janet MacLarty, of that place.

John Miller, an old soldier, who served at the battle of Ramilies, to Mrs. Fox, widow; their ages united make 150 years.

D I E D.

On Wednesday, May 4, in the 40th year of his age, at his father's house in Birdingbury, Warwickshire, where he had gone for the recovery of his health, the Rev. Henry Homer, junior, late Fellow of Emanuel College, in Cambridge, a gentleman well known and respected for his valuable qualities by many of the most eminent literati, but particularly distinguished by his elegant editions of several Latin Historians, and other Classics, i. e. Tacitus, Sallust, Julius Cæsar, Pliny's Epistles, &c. all of which were not less remarkable for their accuracy than for the beauty of the printing, types, and paper.

At Exeter, Captain Henry Pellew, of his majesty's navy.

In Bond Street, D. Ball, Esq. one of the commissioners of the Tax Office.

The Rev. Richard Price, D. D. LL. D. and Fellow of the Royal Society of London, and of the Academy of Arts and Sciences in New England.

In the character of Dr. Price, philanthropy was the leading figure; in his conversation, in his conduct through life, in his writings, whether theological, moral, or scientific, this appeared prominent. He was the foe of usurped power, not because he envied those who enjoyed it, but because his susceptible heart felt pain for the sufferings of the oppressed; he opposed lawless ambition, not from any pleasure he took in humbling greatness, but because he compassionated the misery of those who were to be its victims. He was the friend of man, and the most intrepid assertor of his rights, and no one's enemy any farther than this character required it of him.

His excellent understanding, his boldness and freedom of thinking, the purity of his views, and the simplicity of his manners, had endeared him to a large circle of acquaintance, by whom his loss will be deplored.

At her house, Park Lane, the Right Hon. Dowager Countess Grosvenor.

At Hampton Court, the Dowager Countess Ferrers, relict of Washington, Earl Ferrers, and aunt to Robert, the present Earl Ferrers.

In Hill Street, Berkeley Square, the youngest son of the Right Hon. the Earl of Carysfort.

At Bath, Edward Buller, Esq. of Port Looc, Cornwall, brother to Judge Buller.

At Little Onn, in Staffordshire, Catherine Harvey, aged 104. This venerable person has a sister in the same parish, who is now in good health, at the age of 102.

At Battersea, Thomas Rhodes, Esq.

At Shirehampton, aged 80, the Rev. Walter Chapman, D. D. prebendary of Bristol, vicar of Bradford, Wilts, and master of St. John's Hospital, in Bath.

At Lambeth, in the 67th year of his age, after a long and painful illness, Mr. James Shiells, many years an eminent surferman of that place, but had retired on the fruits of his industry about seven years since. He has left behind him, to lament his loss, a widow and six daughters, amongst whom he has distributed the competency he had acquired in business. He was the original projector of the Society of Guardians for the Protection of Trade, &c. in the year 1773, which has since been so warmly and respectably countenanced, and was honoured with the confidence of treasurer from its first institution. In the line of his profession he displayed great taste in the art of laying out grounds, and introduced some of the most useful improvements into those rural luxuries, hot-houses, in which he happily blended convenience with elegance; a striking instance of this exists in the beautiful gardens and hot-houses at Olesly,

now in the possession of the Right Hon. Lord Ducie.

In Holborn, Mr. Lockyer Davis, printer to the Royal Society, and bookseller. He had been indisposed for some time with the gout, but was thought to be quite recovered, and, within a few minutes of his death, had spoke to his family with his usual cheerfulness, when a sudden torpor came over him—he fell from his chair and died.

At Liverpool, Robert Townsend, Esq. barrister at law, in the 83d year of his age, having been 35 years recorder of the city of Chester, which he resigned a few years since, on account of his weak and declining state of health.

In Cavendish Square, Sir William Jones, bart. of Ramsbury manor, in the county of Wilts.

At Dublin, Caesar Hore, Esq. Redmond Dolphin, Esq. of Loughrea, Ireland.

At Pittendrich, Robert Mercer, Esq. of Lethendy.

In Dieppe, in France, the Rev. Robert Wyatt, domestic chaplain to Lord Camelford, and rector of St. Bennet's and St. Leonard's, Gracechurch Street.

At Frodsham, John Latham, Esq. 35 years surveyor of the customs in Chester.

At Chester, Thomas Corgrave, Esq. senior alderman of that corporation, and one of his majesty's justices of the peace for that county.

At Hereford, John Snelgrove, Esq. late collector of the excise at Norwich.

In Gloucester Street, Queen Square, Mrs. Berthon, relict of the late Paul Berthon, Esq. merchant, of Broad Street, London.

In Charlotte Street, Bloomsbury, after a lingering illness, H. C. Arrhenius, Esq.

William Nelthorpe, Esq. of Nuthurst Lodge, near Horsham, in Essex.

In Pembrokeshire, Pennoyer Watkins, Esq. one of the justices of the peace for the county of Carmarthen.

In Wood's Close, Clerkenwell, Mr. Paine, who, from one of the lowest beginnings, had, with much credit to himself, accumulated a fortune of not less than 20,000l.—He was originally, and not many years since, a seller of dog's meat; from that he commenced tripe merchant, and was, at his death, the renter of a very large farm. He affords a striking example of the power of industry and honesty united.

At Plymouth Dock, much lamented by his brother officers, Mr. Nathan Birkinshaw, gunner of his majesty's ship the Impregnable at that port, and one of the oldest officers in the navy, having been 50 years in the service.

At Hendon, Middlesex, Mrs. Warner, wife of Lieutenant Warner, of the royal navy.

Thomas Hyett, Esq. upwards of 40 years accountant of the bye-letter department of the General Post Office.

In Bishopsgate Street, in the 76th year of his age, William Rogers, Esq. one of the commissioners of the land-tax for the city of London.

At Camberwell Green, Samuel Bayntes, Esq. of the Bank.

The eldest daughter of James Sutton, Esq. of New Park, Wilts.

At Bath, Mrs. Creswell, relict of Thomas Elicourt Creswell, Esq. of Pinkney, Wilts, and only daughter of the late Edmund Warneford, Esq. of Sevenhampton, in the same county.

In Queen Anne Street, aged 87, the Right Hon. Lady Charlotte Rich, the only daughter of the late Earl and Countess of Warwick and Holland.

At Madras, Morgan Williams, Esq. formerly Chief of Ganjam, and latterly a member of the Madras government.

Lieutenant Campbell, of his majesty's 7th regiment.

At Tellicherry, Lieutenant Flook.

At Bridfholme, Lanarkshire, William Macfarlane, of Macfarlane, Esq. in the 91st year of his age.

In Fall-mall, the Rev. John Ryder, LL.D. Dean of Lismore, in Ireland.

Dr. Alexander Garden, of Cecil Street, in the Strand, late of Charlestown, South Carolina.

In Dublin, Lieutenant Thomas Cooke, late of the 38th: as he was walking in St. Stephen's Green, he fell, and almost instantly expired.

At Calcutta, Thomas Leigh, a senior merchant upon that establishment.

At Leith, George Fullerton, Esq. collector of the customs at that port.

In Scotland, the Right Hon. John Viscount Arbutnot.

In Northumberland Street, Charles Lechmere, Esq.

At Newport, in the Isle of Wight, after a short illness, Richard Cooke, Esq.

Suddenly, Mrs. Bridges, wife of the Rev. Brook Bridges, rector of Danbury, in Essex.

At Feltham Hill, Middlesex, Nicholas Webb, Esq. formerly commander of the Warwick East Indianman.

At Glasgow, John Baras, Esq. of Kirkhill.

Rees Powell, of Neath, Glamorganshire, shopkeeper. Robert Fuller, of Chippenham, Cambridgeshire, grocer. James Shepley, of Wandsworth, Surry, mealman. Alexander Norman Booth, of Newport-street, in the parish of St. Ann, Westminster, Middlesex, tailor. William Gaden, of the town of Pool, merchant. Richard Pawley, of the parish of Shore-ditch, carpenter. Thomas Bagnold and William Bagnold, of Peter-street, Westminster, common brewers. Francis Guis, late of Long-lane, in the city of London, victualler. John Martin, the younger, of Oxford-street, shop-keeper. William Sommers, of Harwich, Essex, stationer and book-binder. Richard Wright, of Trowse, Norfolk, coal-merchant and maltster. James Underwood, of the city of Bristol, wool-drapler. Edward Moody, late of Birmingham, Warwickshire, but now a prisoner in his majesty's gaol for the said county, factor. William Yalden, of Lovington, Hampshire, money-scrivener, miller, and mealman. Christopher Phillips, late of the city of Bristol, but now of the parish of Bedminster, Somersetshire, victualler. Anna Maria Brown, of Old Bond-street, in the parish of St. George, Hanover-square, Middlesex, dealer in toys. Thomas Dovey, of the parish of St. Michael, in Bedwardine, Worcesterhire, whitesmith and ironmonger. Michael Lafcelles, of Salisbury-street, in the parish of St. Martin in the Fields, Middlesex, wine-merchant. Thomas Bowles, of Snow-hill, London, painter. Timothy Goldsmith, late of the Airley-castle East Indianman, but now of the city of London, mariner. Charles Ryland, of Limehouse, Middlesex, late first mate of the Walpole East Indianman. John Norris, of Bew Bush, in the parish of Beeding, Sussex, furrier. Thomas Lynn, of Clapham, Surry, corn-chandler. Samuel Woodward, of Pennington-street, in the parish of St. George, Middlesex, brandy-merchant. William Horsfall, of Coventry, Warwickshire, ribbon-weaver. James Newman, of Goswell-street, Old-street, Middlesex, corn-chandler. John West, of Market-street, in the parish of St. John the Evangelist, Westminster, Middlesex, cooper. Edward Thorne, late of Gould-square, Crutched-friars, in the city of London, lighterman. John Alexander Jonchon, and Louis, otherwise Lewis Feuillade, of Frith street, Soho, Middlesex, jewellers and copartners. Edward Richards, late of St. Martin's-le-grand, in the city of London, oil and colourman. Richard Horwood, of the Strand, in the parish of St. Martin in the Fields, Middlesex, dealer in glass and Staffordshire ware.

BANKRUPTS.

George Greenwood and Richard Floyd Pitt, late of Great St. Helen's, in the city of London, merchants and copartners.

PRICE OF STOCKS IN APRIL, AND MAY, 1791.

Days.	Barometer. Inches, and 100th Parts.	Thermome- ter. Fahrenheit's.	Weather in May, 1791.	Lottery- Tickets.	Exch- Tontine.	New Navy Bills.	New 1751. Ann.	S. Sea Stock.	India Bonds.	India Stock.	Short ditto.	Long Ann.	Navy. Confol.	3 per Ct. Confol.	Bank Stock.	2 per Ct. redue.
16	29	68	29	67	50	56	51	Rain								
17	29	77	29	85	49	54	44	Cloudy								
18	29	80	29	73	45	48	42	Rain								
19	29	65	29	69	44	47	49	Ditto								
20	29	72	29	84	45	47	44	Ditto								
21	29	88	29	88	45	47	43	Cloudy								
22	29	84	29	80	44	46	42	Ditto								
23	29	91	29	91	48	53	46	Ditto								
24	29	87	30	08	42	50	46	Fair								
25	30	19	30	17	45	50	41	Ditto								
26	30	21	30	08	49	59	50	Ditto								
27	30	00	29	91	52	62	51	Ditto								
28	29	94	29	97	50	55	48	Showers								
29	29	91	29	72	55	63	51	Fair								
30	29	58	29	47	51	55	48	Showers								
31	29	46	29	65	54	60	49	Fair								
1	29	83	30	01	56	64	53	Ditto								
2	29	63	29	93	51	63	52	Ditto								
3	29	93	29	94	50	62	51	Ditto								
4	29	81	29	71	49	58	52	Cloudy								
5	29	76	29	80	54	60	49	Fair								
6	29	74	29	69	50	55	47	Cloudy								
7	29	81	29	88	49	56	49	Ditto								
8	29	88	29	79	54	62	53	Fair								
9	29	81	29	82	53	60	47	Ditto								
10	29	66	29	64	52	55	44	Rain								
11	29	81	29	91	54	63	52	Fair								
12	30	85	30	14	55	62	44	Ditto								
13	30	19	30	19	55	63	50	Ditto								

METEOROLOGICAL DIARY
In LONDON, for May, 1790.
By Mr. W. Jones, Optician, Holborn.
Height of the Barometer and Thermo-
meter with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days.	Barometer. Inches, and 100th Parts.				Thermome- ter. Fahrenheit's.			Weather in May, 1791.
	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock Night.			8 o'Clock Morning.	Noon.	11 o'Clock.	
A 28	29	68	29	67	50	56	51	Rain
29	29	77	29	85	49	54	44	Cloudy
30	29	80	29	73	45	48	42	Rain
M 1	29	65	29	69	44	47	49	Ditto
2	29	72	29	84	45	47	44	Ditto
3	29	88	29	88	45	47	43	Cloudy
4	29	84	29	80	44	46	42	Ditto
5	29	91	29	91	48	53	46	Ditto
6	29	87	30	08	42	50	46	Fair
7	30	19	30	17	45	50	41	Ditto
8	30	21	30	08	49	59	50	Ditto
9	30	00	29	91	52	62	51	Ditto
10	29	94	29	97	50	55	48	Showers
11	29	91	29	72	55	63	51	Fair
12	29	58	29	47	51	55	48	Showers
13	29	46	29	65	54	60	49	Fair
14	29	83	30	01	56	64	53	Ditto
15	29	63	29	93	51	63	52	Ditto
16	29	93	29	94	50	62	51	Ditto
17	29	81	29	71	49	58	52	Cloudy
18	29	76	29	80	54	60	49	Fair
19	29	74	29	69	50	55	47	Cloudy
20	29	81	29	88	49	56	49	Ditto
21	29	88	29	79	54	62	53	Fair
22	29	81	29	82	53	60	47	Ditto
23	29	66	29	64	52	55	44	Rain
24	29	81	29	91	54	63	52	Fair
25	30	85	30	14	55	62	44	Ditto
26	30	19	30	19	55	63	50	Ditto

Corn-Exchange, London.

RETURNS OF CORN and GRAIN
From May 9, to May 14, 1791.

	Quar- ters.	Price.			Avr. Pr. per. Qr		
		£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Barley	5817	6757	6	8	1	3	2
Beans	1186	1463	8	5	1	4	7
Malt	3788	6905	6	7	1	16	6
Oats	6357	6079	9	3		19	1
Pease	767	1136	1	1	1	9	7
Rye	23	31	0	10	1	6	11
R. Seed							
Wheat	3055	6680	15	4	2	4	0
Bigg							

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Literary Magazine.



J. Coomer sculp.

JEDEDIAH BUXTON.

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